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Our preferred length for articles is 1,500 to

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# A TV SCREEN *A survey of school practices* *in your* CLASSROOM

By  
DONALD G. TARBET

YOU MAY NOT have a TV screen in your classroom yet—but there are schools which do have this means of education. And they are making use of this screen as another teaching device to help to broaden the educational opportunities of boys and girls.

TV is no longer regarded as merely an interesting means of entertainment. It is taking its place along with the classroom film, the opaque projector, the filmstrip, and other visual means as a part of the educational process. Yet TV does not replace teaching. It is just another means to aid in doing the job.

Schools often have a central television set located in a room set aside for visual education. In this case classes are brought to the room to view a certain program. Sometimes sets are installed in the auditorium for use by large groups. However, the latter location usually brings problems, especially because of the size of the screen. Other schools are finding it desirable to have sets as part of the equipment in individual rooms. In this way the set is available whenever needed. Still other communities are having their schools wired so that the connections for antennas are in the rooms as well as the electrical outlets, and the sets are moved from room to room as needed.

Whatever the means used, many schools are doing much in using television as a part of classroom instruction. Probably one of the best known programs of such use of TV is in the Philadelphia public-school system. The year 1953 marked the sixth anniversary of school telecasting by the Philadelphia public schools in cooperation with local commercial stations. The daily series, "Operation Blackboard," is viewed by thousands of boys and girls in the Philadelphia public schools and other thousands in suburban, independent, and Catholic schools within range of the station. Television has become a regular teaching aid in many of the schools, as famous personalities and priceless materials enter the classrooms via the television screen. The programs are well-organized and are designed for specific purposes. Some programs are designed for one grade level while others are for wider consumption.

Illustrations of a series of programs for little children are "R for Rhythm," including programs on "How Little Children Make Music," and "Let's Play Melody Flutes." "R for Rithmetic" is planned to motivate children to learn the number story in grades 1, 2, and 3. Other series of educational programs include "Everyone's an Artist," "Exploring the Fine Arts," "Mu-

seum Piece," and "How's Your Social I.Q.?" These programs are scheduled during school hours, from 10:30 until 11:00 A.M., in order that classes may have the opportunity to use them as part of their programs.

Another series of programs is presented from 11:00 to 11:15 A.M. This series includes "Fit As a Fiddle," with a discussion of many aspects of practical health with pupils of fourth to sixth grades; "Where But in America," a discussion of various aspects of social studies for upper-elementary and junior-high-school grades; "Science Is Fun"; "Junior Americans," with topics for kindergarten and first-grade pupils; "Young Artists"; and "Storytime."

Schedules are sent to schools each month to enable teachers and pupils to select those programs which will be of maximum benefit. This is a vital help in the selection of suitable programs.

Cleveland has been another leader in the field of television for classroom use. Not only have programs been adapted to interpret the school to the community but programs are now being presented for viewing by various classes as a part of their regular school program. Careful programming provides a variety of experiences and information for various groups.

Illustrations of this type of program include "Concert Comments: Masterworks Story for Junior-Senior Music Classes," "The News: Places and People," "Get the Answer Right!" "Story Lady" (for fourth-grade language-arts classes), "Jeffersonian Heritage," "Parlons Français," "Builders of Our Nation," "Senior High Biology," "Mr. President," and "General Science"—to mention but a few. Many of these programs are presented more than one time during the day in order that more pupils may view it. Radio has been and still is another important part of their educational program.

Every school day at 10:00 A.M., Iowa TV Schooltime reaches some 20,000 children in

classrooms and has an estimated total viewing audience of 75,000. Surveys have shown that approximately 150 schools have television sets in their buildings. Others report regular use of the programs, with classes watching the shows in nearby homes and business places. This is especially interesting, since this is not a large urban area as are many of the others using television in schools.

The fall series of 1953 included programs in Iowa history, social studies, health, science, and art. The winter quarter included "It's Your Future," "American Adventure," "Guideposts," "Let's Explore Science," and "Adventures in Art." Teachers' study guides available are used in planning activities to precede the programs and also in summarizing the work following the viewing of the programs. Here again, television is a part of the instructional program.

Arlington County, Va., Public Schools have used television to interpret the schools to the public. However, they have gone beyond this original plan and also include programs for viewing by children of various ages. An illustration of this was the dramatization of classical literature for elementary-age children, including "Pinocchio," "Pied Piper," "Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs," "Tom Sawyer," and "Midsummer Night's Dream." "The Lee Mansion and Stratford," and "Jamestown," are two representative programs of the series on the history of Virginia.

The Baltimore schools have been using television for classroom use for some time. Some illustrations of this type of in-school use may be taken from the following programs: "Perspective" is a history series for secondary schools and the sixth grade, in which three periods are compared (1750, 1850, and 1950). The field of science as well as the social sciences is represented by "The Chesapeake Bay and Its Resources." Other programs such as "History Writes a Song," "Reading Is Fun," "Traveling With

Tunes," and "Instruments of the Orchestra," are programs which were used for in-school viewing.

The public schools of the District of Columbia have done much in the way of music telecasts through a series known as "Music Time." The teachers are encouraged to supplement this instruction by adequate preparation for these programs. The programs have ranged from music appreciation to actually teaching elementary-school children how to play a simple musical instrument. The New York City Board of Education continued its telecasts of "The Living Blackboard" and "On the Carousel" throughout the spring term. The latter is presented on Saturday mornings, and combines educational and entertainment features.

Yes, television is being used in quite a number of schools. It usually began with the viewing of some special event, such as the Inauguration. However, it has been expanded to regularly scheduled programs, including newscasts as well as other types of programs. In some cases the classes actually view the programs in their own rooms. Others go to a central viewing room, such as that used by groups for motion pictures. Television is thereby becoming another supplementary teaching aid.

It may bring to the classroom well-known personalities, experts, demonstrators, and performers with materials, skills, and processes not usually available. It may furnish an opportunity to see news being made through on-the-spot telecasts. It may furnish the pupils with opportunities for field trips by television which would not be possible otherwise. Sometimes special reporters share viewing experiences. In fact, it is sometimes said that TV techniques may shape some of the classroom activities.

While current events furnish a fine opportunity for the use of television in education, many other areas may be represented. Science instruction may be greatly aided through various demonstrations. The entire

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*For many school systems, television lessons on individual classroom screens are not "just around the corner"—but have rounded the corner and are in use. Dr. Tarbet, assistant professor of education at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C., has been surveying the situation during the past year. He tells what is going on, and makes fifteen suggestions on television lesson techniques, based upon best current practices.*

area of social studies and government furnishes a broad opportunity for the use of TV. Congressional hearings may be made much more meaningful by actually viewing the meetings through the eyes of television. Reenactments of various historical events, such as a program of "You Are There," can do much to make the past seem real again. Mathematics may be presented by a specialist who adds much to the regular program.

Literature offers many possibilities for programs featuring readings by people such as Charles Laughton or Laurence Olivier. Foreign languages may be helped through a discussion by a native of a foreign country. And this may relate to geography as well. Health can be presented through a discussion of health problems or through demonstrations. And of course the fine arts furnish many possibilities for such instruction.

Musical groups may be heard by various schools throughout a wide area. In many cases, music appreciation can mean much more to pupils through the use of television than by the use of radio alone. Art is another area which offers wide possibilities for instruction through television, especially in art appreciation. And the practical arts may also be presented by television through discussions of various occupations. Skills have even been taught in this manner, such as skills necessary to play instruments, golf

instruction, etc. Of course there is a limit to what may be done in this area. Throughout many of these is the theme of the use of the master teacher to help in the work of the regular teacher.

Dr. William B. Levenson, assistant superintendent of schools in Cleveland, Ohio, stresses four basic steps in making television programs successful for school use. First, there is the need for a functioning script. Second, there is the need for a tested program. Third, there is the need for practical teacher guides, and finally, there is the need for continuous evaluation.

Television does not take the place of good teaching, but it is a supplement to it and should be used as any other teaching aid, to enrich the school program. In this manner the child may have opportunities for the widest and best educational experience possible.

It is desirable to make some rather definite recommendations as to the use of television by the schools through in-school viewing, based on best current practices:

1. Lessons by television should be related specifically to the curriculum. A lesson should not be viewed unless it contributes to the learning experiences thought to be desirable for a particular group of pupils.

2. Lesson plans which will aid in the use of the program to be presented should be prepared. These should be distributed sufficiently long in advance to enable the classroom teacher to plan his or her work accordingly.

3. Teachers should adequately prepare their classes for viewing the programs in order that they may receive the maximum value for the experience.

4. Pupils should feel that the programs viewed are a regular part of the work of the class, not just entertainment. There is a place for the use of TV for the latter, but this should be somewhat limited as far as classroom viewing is concerned.

5. There is a need for adequate follow-up

of a telecast, through some summarizing type of activity. This may be the time to continue further study of the area. Telecasts may often provide take-off points for further discussion.

6. There should be variety in presenting the lessons by television. Regardless of the quality of lectures, panel discussions, etc., a steady diet of any one type of program may cause pupils to lose interest.

7. Some schools report much success in having pupils help in the selection of programs to be viewed. In many cases, pupils plan the programs. This is often true where programs are prepared by the classes themselves.

8. As in the case of viewing motion pictures in the school, there is considerable advantage in having only one class view programs in a room, rather than "doubling up" the classes.

9. According to some reports the most effective programs are those in which the teacher instructs the viewing classes rather than the studio classes. This has been the basis for quite a lot of discussion. Some give the illusion of viewing the class through the window. Other programs try to make a person feel that he or she is a part of the group.

10. An hour should be selected for the TV lessons that does not interfere too greatly with scheduled activities, such as recess. The elementary school usually has a more flexible schedule than the high school and may schedule work around the telecasts. There is a need for moving this flexibility into the secondary school to some extent in order that groups may profit most by various types of experience which may not fit into a schedule of bells. This is being done now in the case of field trips and other activities requiring more time than the regular class period.

11. Equipment should be kept in good working condition in order to insure the best possible reception.

12. There is a definite need for proper program planning on the part of the various groups concerned. This is often done through a program coordinator working with a committee of teachers and representatives from the studios.

13. Coordination of school-viewing and home-viewing should be carefully done in order that the child may benefit from programs at various hours. Edward R. Murrow's "See It Now" and "Person to Person" can be of definite help. Many other fine programs such as "Cavalcade of America," "You Are There," "Industry on Parade," and "Mr. Wizzard" may be viewed during out-of-school hours.

14. There is the need for the development of critical attitudes in order to pro-

mote wiser program selection. Some people say "control the set or it will control the family."

15. Be sure the program is a real aid to the learning program.

Other suggestions could be made, but these may furnish a basis for consideration of this topic. Television is expanding from entertainment into instruction, and from the home into the school. Teachers and administrators are recognizing its worth. The problem of its proper utilization is being solved. In this manner television will take its place along with radio, the motion picture, the filmstrip, globes, charts, and the blackboard as a part of the educational process.



## What Will History Say of Us?

A few weeks ago a friend of mine said: "I certainly would like to be able to read what history will say about us and our age five hundred years from now." The chances are that it will present a picture so full of inconsistencies and injustices that readers will view it with incredulity.

Events crowd about us: an H-bomb is exploded in the South Pacific and mankind shudders at its potentialities; in the face of rising unemployment and fading income, Congress refuses to provide tax relief for persons with low incomes, but reduces taxes on many luxury items and on stock dividends; a school building in suburban Buffalo burns, taking the lives of eleven of our precious children and reminding us that one out of five of our children is attending school in a veritable fire trap; in several states legislation is passed under the guise of "right to work" bills, though the real motive is to prevent individuals from organizing to protect their inherent rights and privileges; with 4,000,000 housing units unfit for occupancy, Congress refuses to provide even 35,000; dollars are sent abroad, but tariff barriers are allowed to stand; huge quantities of food lie in our warehouses, while millions throughout the world are starving.

Meanwhile petty political maneuvering highlights the news from Washington. Without the constructive ability to solve the colossal problems which new developments pose, some of our representa-

tives dig around in the past for headlines and for partisan or petty personal advantage while the very foundations of our civilization are at stake. The easy path of hindsight is trod by those elected to lead, instead of the difficult road to the future with its hard problems.

With our potential enemies poised to take advantage of any and every weakness, the fumbings and time-wasting tactics of our legislators become menacing for our future.

Always in time of danger and befuddlement the people look eagerly for easy cures. Wise men of integrity know that there are no quick or simple solutions for our complex problems, but a charlatan can appear on the scene, present a simple formula, and, even in a democracy such as ours, obtain followers for a time.

What has all this to do with the schools? It seems to me that through the development of understanding of the problems of the day, fostered by a free atmosphere in the classroom, students can learn to distinguish the good from the shoddy, the true from the false. They can learn through the precepts of history that there is no one simple solution to our world problems and that as citizens of a democracy they must make their intelligent contribution.—CARL J. MEGEL in *The American Teacher*.

# Let's Stop Worshipping THE DICTIONARY

By  
LYNWOOD CARRANCO

IT IS AMAZING to note that teachers, in spite of the work that has been done in the past 150 years by linguistic scientists, still think that every word has a correct meaning, and that dictionaries and grammars are the supreme authority in matters of meaning and usage.

These people never inquire by what authority the writers of dictionaries and grammars say what they say. It is incredible to see teachers bow down to the dictionary. If a person says, "The dictionary is wrong!" he is looked upon as out of his mind.

The common question in all disputes concerning language is always, "What does the dictionary say?" Professor Fries, one of the editors of *The American College Dictionary*, says, "... as if there were but one dictionary with ultimate authority, and as if the statements recorded in any dictionary were valid for all time!"<sup>1</sup>

The publication date of the particular dictionary consulted or the qualifications of those who have produced it are never considered by most people. The terrific desire for a readily accessible "authority" on the part of the general public has created an enormous market for many cheap dictionaries, often produced by reprinting old dictionary materials upon which the copyright has expired, adding a few well-known new words in order to give the appearance of being up-to-date.

It is surprising to observe that some teachers still think that only two kinds of words exist in any language, the correct and

proper and the incorrect or mistakes. People who make these "mistakes" are either ignorant or careless!

The dictionary, as the "authority" concerning the acceptability of words and proper use of word meanings, goes back to the publication of Samuel Johnson's *English Dictionary* in 1755. Before this time the proper and scientific attitudes toward language can be seen. Thomas Blount had the following to say in his dictionary of 1656:

As speech is the apparel of our thoughts, so are there certain garbs and modes of speaking, which vary with the times; the fashion of our clothes not being more subject to alteration, than that of our speech.<sup>2</sup>

The early dictionaries attempted to explain and interpret the "hard word" and "difficult terms" that were used in the sciences and foreign languages.

Samuel Johnson's dictionary was a great literary achievement performed by one man, but he attempted to put the "proper" meanings to words and left out words and phrases that did not appeal to him. In his preface for *The Dictionary of the English Language* of 1755, he said:

Many barbarous words and phrases by which other dictionaries may vitiate the style are rejected from this.<sup>3</sup>

The immediate effect of Dr. Johnson's work was to bring both the learning of dictionaries and the writers of them into the

<sup>1</sup> Thomas Blount, *Glossographia or a Dictionary Interpreting all such Hard Words, whether Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Italian, Spanish, French, Teutonic, Belgick, British or Saxon*, p. ii.

<sup>2</sup> Samuel Johnson, *Dictionary of the English Language*, p. iii.

<sup>3</sup> Clarence L. Barnhart et al., *The American College Dictionary*, p. xxix.

highest esteem. David Haskins, in *The Study of the Large English Dictionaries*, in 1873, quoted Dr. Worcester, the American lexicographer, as saying:

It is justly regarded as one of the greatest literary achievements ever performed by any man in the same space of time . . . no other work has had so much influence in fixing the external form of the language, and ascertaining and settling meaning and proper use of words. It has formed essentially the basis of many smaller works, and, as Walker remarks, it has been deemed lawful plunder by every subsequent lexicographer.\*

The dictionaries of the nineteenth century followed the tradition of Samuel Johnson's dictionary. They attempted to conform the language to a "fixed" standard, giving "correct" meanings. The "correct" pronunciation was always referred to. John Walker's *Pronouncing Dictionary* was copied by most lexicographers. An example is Hezekiah Burhan's *The Nomenclature and Expositor of the English Language*, which was published in 1828. In the preface he stated:

Among the early writers on the subject of pronunciation, those who deserve the highest praise are, Messrs. Elphinston, Kendrick, Sheridan, and Nares; who have all their peculiar excellencies. But Mr. John Walker, author of the *Critical Pronouncing Dictionary*, has combined the advantages to be derived from the writings of those gentlemen, into one complete system. It has been adopted as the standard of the English language, not only in the best institutions for learning in Great Britain and Ireland, but likewise in similar institutions throughout the United States; and wherever that language is cultivated. The author has rigidly followed the last gentleman's system of pronunciation; and has divided and accented all his words accordingly.\*

The two main lexicographers of the nineteenth century in America were Noah Webster and Joseph Worcester. These two participated in the so-called "war of the dictionaries." Joseph Worcester, a former helper of Webster, published his own inde-

pendent work in 1830 and cut in on Webster's profit. Webster, who was a jealous man, was extremely bitter against his rivals. He claimed that Worcester plagiarized his work and also accused Lindley Murray of plagiarizing his grammar.

In 1848, an English publisher brought out Worcester's dictionary with Webster's title! This caused hard feelings. The leading literary people of the time divided into two camps. Even Yale and Harvard were embroiled in the conflict.

Webster lived until 1843 and the Merriam people obtained the rights to the dictionary in 1844. G. & C. Merriam were very active and even today have a certain "drive" to sell their product. The publishers, Swann and Lippincott, who took over Worcester's dictionary, let it fall into ruin. In 1902, the publishers attempted to bring out a new edition. Scott, who was the top lexicographer of the time, was hired; \$500,000 were spent and only half of the alphabet was covered. More money could not be raised, so this brought to an end the publishing of the Worcester dictionaries.

David Haskins, in his study, had this to say about the two men:

Dr. Webster endeavors to reform and improve the language, especially in the spelling of words, which he sought to bring more fully under rules and fixed principles. Dr. Worcester, on the other

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*The dictionary makers, Mr. Carranco says, are not ultimate authorities who hand down the law on definitions and pronunciations. They are scribes who try to record the usages that are preferred by a majority of educated persons. Sometimes what a dictionary records is valid to the extent that a five-to-four decision of the Supreme Court is valid, or a 21,000 to 19,000 vote for mayor is valid. The author, who teaches in Arcata, Cal., Union High School, suggests that under the circumstances some of us should get up off our knees.*

\* David Haskins, *The Study of the Large English Dictionaries*, p. 8.

\* Hezekiah Burhans, *The Nomenclature and Expositor of the English Language*, p. iii.

hand, simply aimed to give the spelling and pronunciation of words according to the usage of the best speakers and writers.

Dr. Webster's innovations in our own language met with so much opposition that, after an experiment of twelve years, he was induced to restore the old orthography to a considerable number of words, in which the basis of change had been that of etymology, and, since his death, it has been restored to nearly all that remain.

Dr. Webster's dictionary is in general sympathy with the tendency to simplify and systematize the language, while Dr. Worcester's inclines more to the conservation of its old and fixed forms. Neither of these works, however, any longer represents the opinions of one man; each embodies the judgment and learning of many minds eminent for their attainments in the various departments of philological science.<sup>8</sup>

The attitudes of the people of the United States toward dictionaries are different from those of England. In America there is more allegiance to the dictionary. In England the people tend to speak more as a class; but in America each individual, as a rule, tries to better himself by speaking differently.

The popular conception is that dictionaries are meant to stabilize a language. In any preface to the large dictionaries, one can find the function of the dictionary stated in clear terms. It is amazing to note that very few people ever read a preface in any dictionary. In the preface of *The American College Dictionary* can be found the following:

This dictionary records the usage of the speakers and writers of our language; no dictionary founded on the methods of modern scholarship can prescribe as to usage. It is not the function of the dictionary-maker to tell you how to speak, any more than it is the function of the mapmaker to move rivers or rearrange mountains or fill in lakes. A dictionary should tell you what is commonly accepted usage and wherein different classes of speakers or regions differ in their use of the language.<sup>9</sup>

Later in the preface, Harrison Platt, one of the editors, says:

What is the role of a dictionary in settling ques-

<sup>8</sup> Haskins, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

<sup>9</sup> Barnhart, *op. cit.*, p. xxxi.

tions of pronunciation or meaning of grammar? It is not a legislating authority on good English. It attempts to record what usage at any time actually is. Insofar as possible, it points out divided usage. It indicates regional variations of pronunciation or meaning wherever practical. It points out meanings and uses peculiar to a trade, profession, or special activity. It suggests the levels on which certain words or usages are appropriate. A Dictionary such as this, based on a realistic sampling of usage, furnishes the information necessary for a sound judgment of what is good English in a given situation. To this extent the dictionary is an authority and beyond this authority should not go.<sup>9</sup>

Funk and Wagnall's *New Standard Dictionary* has this to say:

The function of a dictionary is to record usage; not *except in a limited degree*, to seek to create it. When custom or usage varies, it is important that a dictionary should be most careful in its preferences . . . correctness in pronunciation, like correctness in diction, depends upon the consensus of usage among educated people. There are many words in the language regarding the correct pronunciation of which expert orthoepists and scholars as well as dictionaries do not agree. The correctness of English pronunciation should be determined by the best and widest usage among the English-speaking peoples.<sup>9</sup>

Webster's *New International Dictionary of the English Language* states:

It is impossible to attempt to record the pronunciation in "running speech"—the countless minor variations to which the pronunciation of a word is susceptible under the influence of other words with which it is temporarily associated . . . the style adopted here is platform speech. The omission of less precise pronunciations of familiar words does not indicate that those pronunciations do not exist or that the editors refuse to recognize them. The recording of all colloquial pronunciations is not possible.<sup>10</sup>

Thomas A. Knott, the general editor of the Merriam-Webster dictionary, says:

You notice that I still pronounce that in what we give as the second pronunciation of the word. Our preferred pronunciation is [prənˈɑːnsɪˈeɪʃu]. I say

<sup>9</sup> Barnhart, *op. cit.*, p. xxxi.

<sup>9</sup> Funk and Wagnall's, *New Standard Dictionary*, p. xi.

<sup>10</sup> Thomas Knott et al., *Merriam-Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language*, p. xii.

[prənənˈʃiəʃn]. Because I was once in the army I continue to say [rʌvt] and not [rust] much to the dismay of our pronunciation editor who says [rʌvt] is below the level of the angels! . . . We are also obliged by the nature of the medium in which we work and by the nature of the questions asked as, to present that word not in the ordinary running colloquial script, but as more or less as I am delivering my speech now, as what we call in the office and in the conferences of our editorial board, platform speech.<sup>21</sup>

He describes later the method by which the dictionaries select the "first" pronunciation:

We habitually and periodically send around questionnaires containing a very carefully selected list of words with as many as sometimes six different known pronunciations, to just as many people as we dare, people of very widely different classes as far as public speaking is concerned—limited number of college and university presidents, limited number of linguists, and phoneticians, large number of teachers of speech, large numbers of teachers of English, lawyers, and public speakers. Out of 300 answers it will run about 125 in favor of no. 1 or 6 or 3, or whatever may be first on the list. We try very hard never to put what we think is the prevailing type as the first in the list. We don't want people to check the first one just because it is the first. There is, we find, one type of pronunciation that is used prevalently.<sup>22</sup>

Recording words is the chief duty of writing a dictionary; it is not a task of setting up authoritative statements about the "true meanings" of words. The writer of a dictionary is *not* a person who makes laws. *He is a historian.*

When defining a word, the dictionary editor *must* define that word based on what the quotations reveal about the meaning of that word. He cannot be influenced by what *he* thinks a word *ought* to mean.

We can be *guided* by the dictionary, but we cannot be bound by it; new situations, new experiences, new inventions, new feelings, are always compelling us to give new uses to old words. One cannot regulate the

meanings of language unless one undertakes to regulate ideas, concepts, and events. The meaning of any word changes with the change in the experience of the people who use that word.

In order to promote more sales, publishers of dictionaries advertise their products as the "standard" dictionaries. This word carries with it the overtones of being the only rule of measuring. They also advertise their products as being the "authority" in all language matters. When the people read the "authority" in the advertisement, they think of the word in the sense of being the "revelation." The publishers of dictionaries take advantage of the ambiguous word, "authority."

Many English teachers today do not understand the application of the label "colloquial" in the best dictionaries. Some teachers feel that there is a stigma attached to the label and they do their best to avoid it. They seem to think that it is incorrect or that it means a "localism." Definitions of "colloquial" that only concern choice of words and give as examples only oaths or slang are perhaps in part responsible for some of the popular misunderstanding of the term. The word "colloquial" as used to label words and phrases in a modern scientifically edited dictionary has no such meaning. Dr. Fries, one of the editors of the *American College Dictionary*, has the following to say about the word:

It is used to mark those words and constructions whose range of use is primarily that of the polite conversation of cultivated people, of their familiar letters, and informal speeches, as distinct from those words and constructions which are common also in formal writing. The usage of our better magazines and public addresses generally has, during the past generation, moved away from the formal and literary toward the colloquial.<sup>23</sup>

It is interesting to note that the CSD (*New College Standard Dictionary* published by the Funk & Wagnall Company) has substituted the word "popular" for "colloquial"

<sup>21</sup> Thomas A. Knott, "How the Dictionary Determines What Pronunciations to Use." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXI (1935), pp. 1-4.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 8.

<sup>23</sup> Barnhart, *op. cit.*, p. xxix.

because of the misunderstanding of the word.

It is the first purpose of a dictionary to record usage. In spite of the fact that changes have occurred in our programs of

language instruction, many teachers still look upon the editor of a dictionary as a superior kind of person with the right to legislate in such matters as pronunciation and the use of words.



## \*   \*   *Tricks of the Trade*   \*   \*

By TED GORDON

**REVIEW IN LITERATURE**—Have some of your pupils impersonate well-known characters in prose and poetry. Tie it up with a radio program entitled "I Am a Character." Have it all in the first person. Vary it if you run it more than once by having the characters give about five hints or so. Give pupils points for guessing. Add little prizes, too.—*Joseph R. Casey*, Puyallup, Wash., High School.

**SCIENCE UNITS**—To find clippings, pictures, and pamphlets for specific units of work in biology and other sciences, place them in manila folders and list the contents on the front of each folder. By checking the list, it is easy to find the material needed for each class.—*Aldina S. Gates*, Baton Rouge, La., High School.

**MOUNTING MAPS**—For classroom use mount your National Geographic maps in this way: Unfold the map and wet it thoroughly (the colors are fast). Cut a piece of cheesecloth slightly larger than the map,

and work library paste into the cheesecloth. Place the wet map face down on a clean surface and put the cheesecloth on the back of the map. Let it dry and cut off the excess cheesecloth. Mount on a shade roller and place two half rounds and a pull on the other end.—*Robert E. Campbell*, Principal, Abilene Junior High School, Abilene, Kans.

**TAKE A NUMBER**—For purposes of lab demonstration, keeping children's drinking glasses separated, and other similar differentiation, try purchasing those glasses with numbers printed on them in elongated fashion.

**CLASSROOM CALENDAR**—A classroom calendar of coming events is a helpful device. Let a committee of students make it and post it on the class bulletin board. Indicate on it all coming classroom events that are in any way different from the usual class routine. Exams, instructional films, special reports, and similar events can all go on for the current month. Incidentally, such a calendar will put the instructor on his toes also.—*Harold Rolseth*, 298 Lake St., Pewaukee, Wis.

**RULER BLOTTER**—Take your rulers and rubber-cement blotter paper on the undersides. Thus you have a combination measurement instrument and, if you use ink, a blotter. The use of the rubber cement allows you more easily to strip off the saturated blotter paper and to replace it with fresh paper.

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**EDITOR'S NOTE:** Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Please try to limit contributions to 50 words or fewer—the briefer the better. Original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE. Dr. Gordon teaches in East Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, Cal.

# What's Good *A procedure for identifying successful school practices* in a GOOD SCHOOL?

By  
LEO D. DOHERTY

WHAT'S GOOD in a good school? Answers to this question were sought by the Division of Research in the process of preparing a design for early secondary-education programs in New York State.

It was believed that one important source of data would be an inventory of the successful practices found in grades 7, 8, and 9. This inventory not only proved helpful in preparing a state design but also proved of value to the schools visited. Principals and teachers were requested to make an examination of their programs—not in terms of what needed to be done but in terms of what they were doing well.

This proved to be an interesting request to them. They felt complimented because their schools had been chosen as excellent, and they quite naturally wanted to justify this opinion. Letters which were subsequently received from the principals indicated that the visits had proved stimulating. The letters also pointed out that, although only successful practices were asked for, the staffs became conscious of their schools' weaknesses.

Because the visits proved to be of value to the schools, the visiting procedure used is described here for the benefit of those interested in examination of school programs.

## SOME PROBLEMS INVOLVED

The examination of a school's program usually means a survey of its practices, policies, and procedures. For the purpose of the State study, it was desired to conduct an on-the-scene survey but to avoid an on-

the-spot evaluation. If objective data alone had been sought, a questionnaire would have served the purpose, but the judgments of the people who worked with or were affected by the local programs were also wanted. This gave rise to several problems which had to be solved before visiting could start:

1. Selection of the schools to be visited.
2. Selection of the teams to do the visiting.
3. Determination of a procedure to be used with all of the schools visited.

## Selection of Schools

Various methods of selecting schools were considered. The method decided upon is not claimed to be superior, but it was chosen because it utilized the judgment of professional people who were close to the schools at the early secondary level. Suggestions for a list of top schools were received from professors of education in teacher-training institutions, from members of the supervisory staff of the State Education Department, and from administrators and supervisors in the field. The final selection included both 3-year and 6-year secondary schools, schools in all parts of New York State, schools in large cities, small cities, villages, and rural areas. Notable schools in six neighboring states were also included in the survey.

## Selection of Teams

It was desirable for the teams: (1) to consist of a sufficient number of members so that the visits would be brief and inter-

fere as little as possible with school routine, and (2) to represent various backgrounds and interests. Each team, therefore, consisted of the following members:

A representative of the Division of Research  
A representative of the Division of Secondary Education

A faculty member from a teachers' college

An administrator (either a superintendent or a junior-high-school principal) from a public-school system other than the one being visited

The two members from the State Education Department were permanent members of the team. The other two were selected on the basis of their knowledge of and interest in early secondary education and their proximity to the school being visited.

#### *Determination of Procedure*

The procedure to be followed with each school visited was developed with the assistance of the staff of the Division of Research. In the course of this development, the team members from the State Education Department tried out the procedure in a few schools. The temporary members of the teams were sent instructions to acquaint them with the procedure.

Letters were sent to the selected schools, inviting them to participate in the survey. Their approval resulted in the formation of an itinerary and an accompanying calendar. Another letter to each school presented a succinct description of the proposed visit and the name and position of each of the visitors. Each school was asked to provide a substitute teacher so that faculty members could be freed for interviews. Printed materials that would help the visiting team understand the school's program were requested. The principal and his staff were asked to be prepared to indicate the school practices they considered successful. These practices were to be investigated by the team members.

#### VISITING THE SCHOOLS

On the first morning of a school visit, the

four members of the team met briefly in the school to get acquainted. For the remainder of the first hour the team met with the principal. During this meeting background material was obtained. The principal usually distributed a folder of material which contained class schedules, student handbooks, bus schedules, extra-class activities lists, and other pertinent matter. Also, the principal was given a printed form for his secretary to complete. This called for routine information such as enrolment by grades, number of teachers, and class sizes.

During the second hour the four team members separated, and each member interviewed one of the following: the principal, the guidance personnel, the student council (or pupils representing grades 7, 8, and 9), and a few teachers who had been employed in that school system long enough to understand the underlying philosophy and explain it. In these sessions it was emphasized that the visit was not evaluative in nature. On the other hand, it was pointed out that the school had been recommended by various sources as one which had a fine program or was engaged in a number of practices which were noteworthy. The object of these interviews was to obtain leads to those practices or facets of the program which the school staff thought were giving particularly good results.

The team members met by themselves for the third period or hour. The noteworthy emphases in the program revealed up to this point were discussed, tabulated, and assigned to members of the team. The principal was called on to arrange further conferences with groups of pupils, classroom teachers in and outside of classroom situations, and other members of the staff. He was asked also to have the list of leads duplicated so that everyone would know what areas the team was covering. Distributing copies of the list usually brought in additions which might have been omitted otherwise.

For the remainder of the day, the in-

dividual members of the team tracked down their leads separately or in groups. In some cases this meant that an interview with a teacher was necessary to determine why the practice was planned, what he hoped to achieve by it, and whether or not he understood or could explain its underlying philosophy. In other cases it meant that an observation of the actual practice was necessary.

During the lunch period the team met with a group of interested parents whom the principal had called together. This presented an opportunity for all of the team members to ask specific questions about the effect of and the public support for the various practices. Three of the team members obtained the information as briefly as possible and then returned to their assignments. The fourth member of the team stayed with the group of parents for further work.

At the end of the first visiting day, a general faculty meeting was held. The early part of this session was devoted to further explanations concerning the nature of the visit and a general discussion of the list of obtained leads. Corrections and additions to the list were made when necessary. The faculty was then divided into four conference groups, namely: a language-arts group; a citizenship studies group; a science group; and a group of so-called special teachers which included the teachers of practical arts, the guidance personnel, the nurse, and the like. One member of the team worked with each group to obtain specific information about a given area—to determine, for example, what techniques were employed when a successful practice crossed class lines or how a practice involving more than one teacher group was carried out by other groups.

The principal and teachers often asked for the reactions of the visiting team to the program of the school. It was pointed out that the team was gathering data for a study and not evaluating a particular

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*In the course of work on a program for the improvement of secondary education in New York State, the Division of Research of the State Education Department evolved the "what's good in a good school" plan of locating and getting information on superior practices in the schools. Dr. Doherty, research assistant in the Department, explains the method used. It seems to have possibilities for application in a local school system or within the faculty of a single school.*

school. However, because of the fine cooperation received, where time permitted the faculty member from a teachers' college talked with the staff during the last part of the first day about such topics as trends in early secondary education, latest teaching practices, or other matters of interest.

The second day was a continuation of the individual team member's effort to obtain information necessary to complete his assignment. Several team conferences were scheduled for the second day to insure adequate coverage of the original list as well as additions to that list.

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROCEDURE

This research procedure differed from the usual one in that the team sought complete information about all the circumstances surrounding a practice which the school's personnel considered successful. The data obtained were of great value in preparing a design for early secondary education in New York State. But of more importance here is the significance of the procedure to the schools visited.

Schools were not compared with a norm. Principals and their staff were regarded as professional people whose judgments concerning the value of their programs were worth consideration. The programs were, therefore, viewed from the standpoint of their value to the children which they

served. The fact that the visitors represented several backgrounds tended to avoid the danger of a biased approach to the programs.

Clearly, the highlighting of school programs and practices which are considered

successful by the school encourages critical examination on the part of the school staff, produces greater insight into the things they are doing well, and stimulates improvement of those practices of which they are not proud.

## \* \* Findings \* \*

**"SOLID" SOCIAL STUDIES:** Of the "solid," or standard academic social-studies courses offered in 443 Michigan high schools, American history led as a one-year course in more than 98% of the schools, says *Michigan Education Journal*. Only two of the schools reporting offer no American history, while in 3 schools it is a 2-year subject.

Ancient history, formerly a glamour girl in the U. S. high-school curriculums, is now taught in only 8% of these Michigan high schools. And its twin, medieval history, has disappeared as a course. World history ranks second, taught as a one-year course in 87% of the schools and omitted in 12%. European history is listed by about 8% of the schools, predominantly as a one-year course. Michigan history gets a small nod, as a one-year course in about 6% of the schools and a one-semester item in about 9%. Most of the schools think the State's past is covered sufficiently in elementary school.

Government is a half-year offering in roughly 70% of the schools, a one-year course in about 17%, a 1½ to 2-year item in almost 10%—and about 4% don't list it. About 33% of the schools offer citizenship as a one-semester to 2-year subject, with one year predominating. Economics ranks in third place as a social-studies subject, but is limited to one semester in about 70% of the schools; about 4% offer it for a full year; and about 25% do not list economics as a subject.

**HIGH-SCHOOL RETENTION:** In the 1950-51 school year, only 62.5% of the pupils who had enrolled in the 9th grade 4 years earlier had survived to be graduated, according to *High-School Retention*

by States, Circular No. 998, a 19-page report of the U. S. Office of Education.

But this graduation record of 62.8% looks good when compared with the figure for 1944-45, when only 46.7% of the 9th-grade pupils of 4 years earlier were graduated. In the interval, the high schools had increased their holding power 15.9%.

The 1950-51 record of graduation from high school by states is extremely spotty. Georgia's 34.5% of graduation puts that State rather by itself on the scale, since retention until graduation in all of the other states is above 50%. In second and third place from the bottom are the District of Columbia with 50.5% and Virginia with 51%. One oddity in the ranking is that New York State, with 53.4%, is below Mississippi's 54.2%. At the top of the per cent of graduation scale is Wisconsin with 80.3%, followed by New Hampshire (76.8%) and South Dakota (75%).

**MENTALLY RETARDED:** Of the nation's 31,000,000 school children, about 700,000, or more than 2%, are mentally retarded to the degree that they need special classes and programs, says Howard A. Rusk, M.D., in the *New York Times*. But not more than 15% of these retarded children will have an opportunity to receive such assistance. In 1950 a number of parents' groups banded themselves into the National Association for Retarded Children, which has headquarters at 129 East 52nd St., New York City. The association has been "extremely influential in increasing facilities of all kinds for such children," and serves as a "national clearing house for information on mental retardation." The organization has 325 locally affiliated chapters in 46 states, and a "rapidly growing membership exceeding 40,000 families."

**THE BACKWARD GLANCE:** The previous semester, 219 graduate students in Secondary Education at University of the City of Los Angeles were queried by Arnold Leslie Lazarus on which subject they wished they had had "more of" in high school. Reporting to this department, Mr. Lazarus says that 212, or 97%, answered, "English composition."

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**EDITOR'S NOTE:** Good, bad, indifferent or important, there is a great amount of counting studies and other research going on in the field of education. We think readers will be interested in brief, unqualified summaries of some main points in some of the findings. Lack of space prohibits much explanation of methods used, degree of accuracy or conclusiveness, and sometimes even the scope of the study.

*Elementary-to-High Articulation:*

# A Pleasant Bridge in the Hyde Park Schools

By  
EDWIN A. JUCKETT

ARTICULATION, OR THE JOB of building that bridge on which boys and girls go from one school level to another, is a man-sized task. Like Mark Twain's weather, everybody talks about it. But here, it is hoped, the comparison ends. At least, in the F. D. Roosevelt High School at Hyde Park, N.Y., some conscientious steps have been taken to make the promotion from elementary to secondary school a pleasant experience.

The following plans have made the opening day (and later ones) less of a nightmare for junior-high children. This smoother start establishes early behavior patterns that may persist even to the end of high school.

For a number of years there has been a policy of holding at least three joint meetings of sixth- and seventh-grade teachers. Mutual problems and projects became the topics of discussion, and the reader will guess that at the very first meeting high-school teachers wanted to know, "Do you teach reading down there?" And a junior-high math teacher inquired, "Do they study the multiplication tables any more?"

However, the elementary teachers, accustomed to this party line for years, could keep a straight face and answer the questions put to them. It was some meetings later that the type of question changed and high-school teachers were inquiring as follows: What do children want to know about high school? What do elementary teachers want to know about the junior-high-school program? How about the proposition of changing jobs for a few days each year?

And elementary teachers were asking such questions as: How far do you want us to go, if at all, with formal grammar teaching? What can we send along to you in the way of vital information about each child? What can we tell you about the methodology used in elementary school? How can we correlate the guidance practices of upper elementary school with beginning high school? Can we help in promoting a continuing reading-instruction program into the high school?

Such questions as these led to the formation of joint committees to study and report at future meetings. Girders for the bridge!

As viewed by both pupils and teachers, one of the most effective practices in articulation is the exchange of sixth- and seventh-grade teachers. This plan, which took very careful pre-planning by the participating teachers, was productive in these ways:

1. Sixth-grade pupils had an opportunity to meet a junior-high-school teacher that they might have in the following year.
2. This junior-high-school teacher, besieged by questions, could promote a feeling of security in sixth-grade boys and girls.
3. The junior-high teacher got the "feel" of the elementary school, and consequently a better understanding of the program.
4. The sixth-grade teacher participated in the high-school routines and similarly got the feel of the upper school.
5. The elementary teacher could go back to the sixth-grade classroom and give first-hand information to pupil questioners.
6. The elementary teacher could see the

progress made by the seventh-grade children since their entrance to high school.

7. Both sixth- and seventh-grade pupils, in the middle of things, felt the bond of friendship between the schools.

The suggestion for the exchange of positions came from the teachers, and over a three-year period they are asking for a continuation of the plan.

Teacher committee work, mentioned before, has been completed on such subjects as: (1) English curriculum for sixth and seventh grades, (2) reading program, and how the high school can continue the work of the elementary school, (3) homework, and how sixth-grade teachers can prepare pupils for such methods as the unit plan of assignment used in the junior high, (4) creation of a simple report that sixth-grade teachers make for all their pupils, (5) report on personality traits of boys and girls who deviate enough to signal possible adjustment difficulties.

In the entire project of articulation, pupil activities have been in the center of the plans. Every year for the past decade each sixth-grade classroom has elected a boy and a girl to "go to high school for a day" as guests of a seventh-grade homeroom. The visitors go to the English-social studies-guidance recitation for its half-day session, as well as to mathematics, physical education, and exploratory course in the other half day. These ambassadors, or inspectors, or both, return to the elementary school and

give a full report to their homeroom pals.

And from the high school to the elementary school, also for many years, has gone a team composed of student council president, seventh-grade homeroom presidents, and the school principal. The pupils give prepared talks and the principal makes introductions and fills in with informative materials that he thinks important. It is customary, at this visit, to leave a School Handbook, copies of the school newspaper, and other informative materials.

There also have been special programs such as a sixth-grade musicale which was held at the high-school building during the pre-Christmas season. Elementary music supervisors worked with sixth-grade groups in the several elementary schools, and then brought all groups to the high-school auditorium for three practice sessions. Through arrangement with the student council, this sixth-grade group presented an assembly program of Christmas songs. Advertised in the high school as a program by the next entering class, the singers received a warm welcome and fine applause from the older boys and girls.

The sixth-grade singers presented the same performance for their parents in an evening date. This program, preceded by a student letter-writing project in which all parents were invited, and which was chaperoned by every last sixth- and seventh-grade teacher, brought teachers and parents and children together in a joint project. Teachers were in agreement that it was a fine plan to get the pupils to their next school home six months before their entrance in high school. An introduction to the building, an introduction to many of their future classmates, an opportunity to be on the giving end of a high-school assembly, a chance to get parents into the high-school building—all of these seemed to be important items in "building the bridge."

The chance to congratulate both the group of teachers and the entire group of

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Joint committees of teachers have been "building a bridge" between the elementary school and the junior high school in Hyde Park, N. Y., that has been making transfer to the higher level "less of a nightmare" for pupils—and even a pleasant experience for many. Mr. Juckett, supervising principal of schools in Hyde Park, explains the program that the teacher committees have developed.*

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young people was not missed. Ideas, no matter how good, are fruitless without the human understanding and feeling of cooperation that bring them to a successful conclusion. Like many other educational programs, articulation needs the kind of teacher initiative, planning and cooperation, and understanding that has gone into

the project in the Hyde Park school district.

The proof of the pudding is in the eating. It is difficult to find a seventh-grade pupil who does not thoroughly enjoy his program at Roosevelt. A good bridge from the elementary school to the high school provides one of the reasons.



## Dear Administrator: Please Answer These Questions. Signed, a Teacher

By MACK HORSMON in *Michigan Education Journal*

1. Do you create or perpetuate a barrier of any kind between yourself and your faculty?
2. Do you encourage artificial, stultifying formality?
3. Do you, as an administrator, display an attitude of superiority?
4. Do you, when supervising, give the impression that you are "checking up"?
5. Do you pose as the overburdened and harassed administrator, thus warding off possible communication with your staff?
6. Do you put on a "show" for visitors or superiors, just for the sake of impression?
7. Do you fail to back up your teachers in any matter?
8. Are you the secretive or evasive type, dwelling in ambiguities and subtleties?
9. Do you dictate policy, values, or anything?
10. Do you make a faculty member's decisions for him, trying to keep him from making mistakes?
11. Do you burden your faculty with useless meetings, and then dominate these meetings?
12. Do you veto group decisions when they are contrary to your own thinking?
13. Do you treat a faculty member's problems, comments, or questions as trivialities?
14. Do you neglect your responsibility for personal and professional growth of your staff?
15. Do you expect your teachers to be "red-hot" zealots every day they're in school?
1. Or do you strive for an atmosphere that encourages free, frank, and respectful communication among *all* personnel?
2. Or do you encourage that informality which is the germ of meaningful communication?
3. Or are you humble in your position and in what you know, realizing that you, too, may still learn?
4. Or do you supervise in such a way that it is recognized as sincere and interested help, not as spying?
5. Or do you present an appearance of efficiency, competence, and satisfaction in your job, open at all times for consideration of new problems?
6. Or do you and your school proceed in its natural way, thus displaying its everyday appearance?
7. Or do you show your confidence in them by standing behind them at all times?
8. Or are you frank, giving honest and direct answers when they are sought?
9. Or do you create an atmosphere of sharing, out of which common decisions will be accepted and growth for all may take place?
10. Or do you encourage him to formulate his own plan of action, to test it, and thereby grow through experimentation and possible error?
11. Or do you call meetings only when there is a clear need?
12. Or do you regard yourself as one of the group and abide by its findings?
13. Or do you show a concern for the personal welfare of your entire faculty?
14. Or are you constantly utilizing opportunities to help your staff in these matters?
15. Or do you realize that they are human beings, subject to the same ups and downs as other people?

About "A Staggering Reading Problem":

## SILK PURSES—or *better* LEATHER ones?

By MARY BURTON MOHLER

AN ARTICLE by a high-school English teacher described "A Staggering Reading Problem"<sup>1</sup> and emphasized two major needs. These were the need to find easy materials—those with low-readability and high-interest level—for adolescents who cannot read, and the need to know *why* so many young people are reaching high school retarded in reading.

These problems are not peculiar to one school or section; every teacher of secondary-school classes is similarly concerned. Yet, as we delve into this matter of so general concern, we become aware that perhaps some of the first problems to which we need answers may be larger and more inclusive than, and possibly fundamental to, the finding of sound answers to the above-stated needs.

We responded to this earnest and sincere article with thoughts that later arranged themselves under these headings:

1. How do the *total* surroundings of these teachers and pupils contribute to growth which is sound and to be expected for these children?
2. How do the teachers of these pupils, their backgrounds and drives, and their operating philosophies of education affect the reading program for these children?
3. Who and what are these children, and, in terms of these facts about them, what is best for them at this stage of development?

Wherever the school, whatever its size, and whichever of several ways it sets about to improve the reading skills and increase

the reading enjoyment of its pupils, these three questions seem first in need of being answered with utter honesty.

As we occasionally use a quotation from Miss Zinkin's article, for a sort of springboard for our discussion, we simultaneously salute the school with the staggering problem and its staff. They are coming to grips with it. They have performed a service by letting others know how they are thinking and working.

Let us look at our third point first. Let us consider the children. They *are* our first concern. "Only 20 per cent of those tested were at or above the ninth-grade level." I would know more! What were their mental maturity grade placement levels at the same time? In terms of these—preferably broken down into language and non-language factors—how retarded were they, really, in reading achievement? Said in another way, in terms of his intelligence grade placement, what was each pupil's reading *expectancy* at the time he was tested for reading? How far below this expectancy was he?

"At least a third of the boys and girls coming to us have gone only half of the distance toward our reading goal." The key word in this sentence is *our*! If the whole child and his purposes are not taken into account in setting the goal, we teachers may be frustrated completely and forever. Besides the *capacity* to read better and the *will* to do so, there must be present in a child certain other illusive qualities or drives before reading improvement will come about.

What expectancies, reading-wise, do his

<sup>1</sup> Vivian Zinkin, "A Staggering Reading Problem." *The Clearing House*, Nov. 1953, p. 133.

peer, culture, and ethnic groups set for him? Is reading important in his background? Also, what social, economic, or emotional blocks to reading may there be? Furthermore, do interest and aptitude tests show that he now feels the need to read or that it is likely he ever will feel this need, as many of us secondary-school teachers do, in order to have a full and satisfying life?

Can we, then, in terms of their present expectancy and their felt needs—or the ones we can lead them to accept as their own—establish reading improvement goals cooperatively with the pupils? What are the kinds of reading most of them will want or need to do? Application forms, contracts, and letters; newspapers and the current magazines; advertising matter and propaganda; with these will their lives be filled. "How to Build It." "How to Order From This Catalog." "How to Make a Casserole Meal." Such readings are *real*. So are suggestions on dating, being socially correct, caring for children, removing stains, fighting house and garden pests, and the like.

"We are confronted by the apathetic or resentful so-called non-reader." We would reply, "What are ninth graders like?" When they are "anti" whatever the adult world is "for," are they not reflecting natural, normal growth patterns for that age? They are trying out their rapidly developing wings of independence.

So they do not *want* to read! So—leave them alone on that point for a while and, instead, fill up some of the holes in their other language-art skills. Improve skills which *can* be tied into what they *do feel* they are going to need to know eventually, if not now. Our personal experience has been that, as we did this, pupils' tension about anything that was "reading" disappeared. They did not "fight back" at us with that characteristic adolescent negativistic lethargy or antagonism, which often-times challenges the frustrated adult to become coercive.

Gradually we were able to get them back

to reading and on the reading level we needed to have them on for reading instruction, yet they thought they had won their point. And because they were "having their own way"—as they thought—they willingly would read things bearing upon the problem they had helped to define and were working on. We know that *purposeful* reading gives the best practice.

But, we say, "Where is the material to tempt the fourteen-to-sixteen-year-old adolescent, couched in such language that it may be read with ease and pleasure by the seven-to-eleven-year-old?" All of us are saying this. Happily, as the previous article indicated, more and more of this type of writing is being published. Let us not forget, too, that when interest motivates the reading, the reader can handle reading matter on a much higher reading level than he does when interest is mild.

The writer believes we cannot teach a child we do not *know*. Too, she has found out that when a teacher himself *s-t-r-e-t-c-h-e-s* to "meet the child on his own level" and "to accept him as a worthy individual," on whatever level this may be, it is possible more times than not to have the child *accept* his reading lacks as a perfectly normal situation and as exactly what the teacher had expected to do something about for him. With the pupil's former feeling of shame and his emotionally-charged withdrawal from the reading act thus taken care of, the teacher and pupil can go forward on a cooperatively planned course of improve-

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Whose goal in reading—the school's or the individual children's? One answer, says Mrs. Mohler, can lead us to frustration. The other answer can bring us the satisfaction of whatever the results of our best efforts yield. The author is Remedial Reading Specialist for the Montgomery County Public Schools in Rockville, Md.*

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ment in terms of the pupil's immediate felt reading needs and interests. When this approach is used, the adolescent *will accept* reading improvement materials which are too young for him in interest appeal but are right instructionally, for he knows it is only temporary reading fare which will surely get him to where he can read independently to find out what he wants to know.

Among the materials we have used thus with success are: "Skilltexts," Chas. Merrill Co.; "Aviation Readers," Macmillan; "Cow-boy Sam Series," Beckly-Cardy Co.; "American Adventure Series," Wheeler; *Just Imagine*, Scott, Foresman; *Reading Skill Builder*, Reader's Digest Co.; *My Weekly Reader*, all levels, American Press; series of readers from Ginn, Row-Peterson, Macmillan, Laidlaw, American Book, Scott, Foresman, and others.

We also have been able to win acceptance of very easy texts in history and science, taken from the elementary lists, by pupils who understood their needs and have been motivated to do something about them. We have used the "Let's Read Series." It is now common practice to find on the library shelves in our secondary schools some of the same supplementary reading books of the library type that are found in the elementary schools. Space does not permit the listing of all the easy materials we have used throughout this county as we have led boys and girls to accept themselves where they are and do something about going forward from there.

The writer would be inclined to think that the pupils accept the easy materials, even those with low-interest level, with better will than do some of the teachers.

Our second fundamental question concerns the factor of the teachers. What are their philosophies of education? How do their cultural backgrounds differ from those of the pupils? Do they subscribe to the thesis that general education, for all the children of all the people, is the first job of the public high school? Do they operate

this way? If so, this should make a difference in *what* is taught, to *whom* which things are taught, and *how* they are taught.

Do the teachers have a working knowledge of child growth and development, and all it implies for teaching a classroom of children? The work of Dr. Daniel Prescott and his associates has made a real difference in the learning that takes place in classrooms where this knowledge is put to work. Teachers of English—and of other subjects, too—are stimulated rather than disturbed by a group of reading-retarded children, when the developmental viewpoint guides their working with them.

The English teacher from the middle or upper classes of society has always taken for granted classical, beautiful writings; they are important in the fabric of his living and he assumes other people naturally feel the same way. He can better understand the child who does not like them when he *sees* the differences between his own backgrounds, drives, peer group expectancies, etc., and those of the pupils who spurn these classics. Teachers say this is one of the greatest benefits they derive from the study of human growth and development, as directed by Dr. Prescott. The writer has heard Dr. Emmett Betts, on several occasions, state publicly that he and his staff have found a difference in the attack on reading problems in those schools or systems where human growth and development study has been extensive within the staff.

This leads us, then, to ask: Does the teacher *really accept* the children, *all* of them, as *worthy* individuals? Or is this acceptance only verbalization? Has oral subscribing to this viewpoint become a cliché? Is it a politic point of view to expound? Or, on the other hand, is the acceptance a reality? It is the conviction of this writer that this point of view must be natural, spontaneous, and an internalized attitude of mind and emotion toward the child for whom reading, except for functional pur-

poses in the daily work-a-day world, is not appealing. Until it is, there can be little progress made in improving the pupil's reading—or in teaching him anything else, for that matter.

In other words, "if teacher understands that I don't need to read 'that stuff,' and that I will never want to; and if he doesn't try to push me into it; and if he is willing to grade me in terms of growth I make in those things that *are* important to me in the language arts; then I may nibble a little bit, one day, surreptitiously, and find that I do like to read, after all."

The third basic factor, the total educational surroundings for these children, can be only touched on here by raising some questions which we leave unanswered.

What is the basic over-all philosophy of the school or the system? Does it take into account the trend of fitting the course to the pupils? Is differentiation of instruction encouraged? Are some of the procedures and processes previously referred to possible in the existing establishment?

What are the policies concerning grouping? Concerning grading and promotion? What are the curriculum and course requirements, and how flexible may these be to meet special needs? Is the basic curriculum one for general education, with additional specialized standards for certain pre-vocational pupils; or is it the traditional academic course watered down for the general education of the masses of young people?

What is the attitude of the other teachers of a particular group of pupils who are, for part of the day, with a teacher who is "good for them?" There is not much point, we suspect, in trying to meet the reading needs, interests, and levels of a group of pupils in one class and not in others throughout the day. One or two periods of "un-frustration" cannot offset four or six of reading failure.

Do teachers in all classes use good directed reading techniques? Are they careful to develop necessary concepts before the

lesson? Is reading assigned for out-of-class work on the independent reading level? Is reading improvement the concern of all the staff, including administrative members?

What can the teachers draw upon in the way of supervisory help or in-service training? Every secondary-school teacher feels the lack of methods in the teaching of reading, even those skills of reading peculiar to his own subject. How much supervision in *reading instruction* is available, and of what kind is it?

Does the teacher load permit the extra time required for preparation of almost individualized lessons and the teaching of smaller groups of seriously retarded pupils?

And what *about* materials? From among those already on the market, what are made available? How difficult is it to get them? What is done by the school or system to keep teachers abreast of possible reading materials on the desired interest and reading levels? Is there a "special materials" budget adequate to provide for reading materials *prescribed* for each "case"?

And so on.

To summarize: We must be certain that we *really know* the children we are dealing with; then we must be certain that we are not imposing our own ways of thinking and living on children who may not be like us and do not want to be, and that what we *are* doing for the children is *for them*; and we must insure, in the total school world and climate, surroundings for the best growth in reading in terms of the former two factors.

As we re-read the article which started this train of thought, we get the feeling again that the English teachers in the high school with the described reading problem were frustrated because they saw no way to bring the pupils up in reading to the grade level, to the place where they could go ahead with the "regular work for the grade," "regular" meaning "academic." This feeling leads us to ask, as a closing thought, "Are we trying to 'make silk purses

out of sows' ears?" Do we need so many silk purses in our society, anyway? Might we not be wiser to work harder on learning to utilize the ears in the making of better quality in the leather purses? Our society does need them now, and will continue to need them in full supply.

The writer is presently working primarily with the raw stuff of leather purses—the hordes of young people in secondary school today who, before World War I, doubtless would have dropped out before reaching

high school. These are the children in pursuit of general education, who need to read better than they do and who can be taught to do so. The writer is also interested in improving the quality of reading habits and tastes of the silk-purse people, too. She is constantly alert not to confuse the two, nor to overlook one group for the other. Her frustrations, if any, come only from the dearth of skilled artisans to work with the majority, those who are in general education, to do a *super* job on sows' ears.



## Teaching English in Terms of Conservation

If information about the purposes and practices of conservation is going to serve the best interests of the United States, there must be a medium through which such information is communicated to as large a percentage of the population as possible. A very effective medium for this purpose is the high-school English class.

Everyone who attends high school takes English. Therefore, English teachers could well assume the responsibility of integrating some conservation instruction with classwork. There are several different ways in which this responsibility may be successfully fulfilled.

A unit in either written or oral composition offers the teacher numerous opportunities to present conservation problems to students. In preparation for such a unit, the teacher might suggest the following topics for the students' consideration—How to Prevent a Forest Fire, Why the Buffalo Disappeared, Tips for Good Hunting, A Modern Izaak Walton, An Experience With the Game Warden, The Story of the Giant Sequoia.

Each student will select a topic, examine what material he can find about it, and present his work in either written or oral form. Here the teacher may be said to relate conservation directly to the subject matter. The biggest advantage in this activity is that the burden of instruction falls upon the shoulders of the students themselves. The teacher is not guilty of preaching conservation, a method against which some students might rebel under the impression that the teacher was riding one of his special interests.

Of the total number of topics suggested by the teacher, those pertinent to conservation should not, perhaps, exceed 25 per cent in any given unit. If more than 25 per cent of the topics involved con-

servation, students might feel that their English instruction is being sacrificed or abandoned. For this reason, the teacher should always introduce these topics into classwork very cautiously. Never should the topics be irrelevant to specific skills that the teacher helps develop in students' written and oral composition. Instead, the teacher must make his students feel that these topics are related to and belong with the particular unit of study.

In addition to written composition work, students are sometimes required to submit book reports. The usual procedure is for the teacher to prepare a booklist from which each student selects a book. After having read his book, the student proceeds to write upon some specific theme, situation, or character in the form of a review or critique. This activity might be utilized by the teacher to give students some conservation instruction.

Approximately 25 per cent of the booklist could be devoted to books pertaining to fishing, hunting, wildlife, or farming. In fact, books specifically pertaining to any phase of conservation could fill 25 per cent of the list as long as such books contain intrinsic literary merit. It is surprising to note the books in which conservation ideas occur; usually, they lie concealed in a story.

For example, we would hardly expect a student to approach *Robinson Crusoe* from the standpoint of conservation, yet such an approach would be well justified. The conflict in this novel evolves from the necessity for the hero to control his natural habitat. The outgrowth of this necessity involves conservation. Thus, the student could write a report about the hero's adjustments to problems arising from this conflict with his environment. We need only examine the books around us to find further examples.—DONALD W. BOLIN in *Ohio Schools*.

# LOST STRAYED OR STOLEN

*Action research on a drop-out group*

By JOE M. YOUNG

**L**OST, STRAYED, OR stolen—184 junior-high-school graduates.

That, to a degree, describes the concern felt by the guidance department of the Tucson, Ariz., public schools in the fall of 1952 when it discovered that of 1,264 pupils who had completed the ninth grade the previous spring, only 1,080 had enrolled in Tucson Senior High School. A fifteen per cent loss, on the surface, appeared excessively high.

What had happened to the missing one hundred eighty-four? Was there an inadequacy in our counseling program? Was there a lack of effectiveness in our orientation program? Was the curriculum responsible? Were economic factors responsible? What effect might the traditions and mores of certain national groups have upon the situation? Were transiency or low academic aptitude factors?

These and many other questions were in the minds of administrators, counselors, and teachers when they were faced with what at first seemed to be an unusually large loss of pupils in three short summer months. It was decided to make an effort to ascertain what had happened to these pupils—what the major factors were in their decision not to enrol in high school, and whether remedial action was indicated.

While the situation was the concern of the whole system, the guidance department felt a special responsibility and undertook what might be termed "action research" to find some of the answers. It was felt that if information could be disclosed that would enable the High School to hold even one or

two pupils who otherwise might drop out, the effort would be fully justified.

First, the counselors organized a fair-sized search party. Lists of the pupils who had failed to enrol were prepared by the senior-high-school counselors and sent back to each of the six junior high schools. Junior-high-school counselors then employed the assistance of teachers, pupils, attendance officers, neighbors, and anyone else who promised to be helpful, to find out exactly what had happened to the missing 184. The result of this search is summarized in Table I.

TABLE I

<i>Cause of Drop-Out</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Per Cent of Total</i>
Left the city .....	83	45.1
Joined the armed forces .....	5	2.7
Deceased .....	1	.7
Married (16 girls, 1 boy) ..	17	9.2
Attending private or parochial school .....	24	13.0
Working .....	35	19.0
Staying home .....	19	10.3
Total	184	100.

When it was discovered that 83 pupils had left the city, and that 24 were known to have enrolled in other schools within the city, the picture seemed a bit brighter. At this point, we reduced the problem by over 50 per cent. But keeping in mind the need to be concerned with any drop-outs, however few percentage-wise, we pursued the problem with particular concern for those "working" or simply "staying at home." The cumulative record folders of these

pupils were examined for pertinent information.

Several factors occurred to the investigator as possibly contributing to the loss of the pupils in these two groups. One of these was "over-age-in-grade." In checking this factor, we found that among the 54 who were working or staying home, an age range from 14 years, 4 months, to 18 years, 6 months, existed. The average age was 16 years, 7 months, or approximately two years older than the average junior-high-school graduate.

When these two groups were divided into boys and girls, it was found that 21, or 39 per cent, were boys, while 33, or 61 per cent, were girls. This was a somewhat surprising situation, since it had been assumed that boys were more likely to become drop-outs and wage earners than girls.

In checking on race or national background as a possible factor, we found that only three groups were represented. Three of the 54 pupils were of Anglo-American background, one was a Negro, and 50 were Spanish-American. The Negro population in Tucson is approximately 2 per cent and the Spanish-American about 30 per cent. We concluded from these facts that national background was a significant factor.

The occupation of the parent seemed to be a possible contributing factor in accounting for the drop-out of the 54 pupils. Table II presents this breakdown.

TABLE II

Parent Occupation	No. of Drop-Outs	Per Cent of Total
Common laborer .....	20	37.0
Skilled laborer .....	22	40.8
Housewife .....	2	3.7
Unemployed .....	2	3.7
Public welfare case .....	2	3.7
Business .....	2	3.7
Unknown .....	4	7.4
Total	54	100.

It can be seen that approximately 84 per cent of these pupils came from the homes of laborers, unemployed parents, or public-

welfare cases, while only 3.7 per cent of the breadwinners were in business and none in the professions.

Another possible contributing factor, the type of home from which these pupils came, presented interesting data. Broken homes accounted for 17, or 31 per cent. The range of family size was from 2 to 11 members, with an average of 6, which is considerably above the national average of 3.5. Sixteen members of this group were oldest children, 6 were second, and 10 were third. It would seem probable that in these large families it was felt necessary to have the older children contribute to the family income.

Success, or lack of it, in school achievement, as measured by grades, was also investigated. Here it was found that average marks in the ninth grade for these 54 pupils ranged from 1.8 to 3.6, with a total average of 2.93. The grade scale in the Tucson Schools ranges from 1 for excellent to 5 for failing. At first glance it would seem that this average is rather high for this type of pupil, but it must be remembered that all of these pupils were graduated, and that grades earned included all subjects, such as physical education, art, music, homemaking, industrial arts, as well as the academic subjects of English, Spanish, mathematics, and social studies. No graduates made failing grades, and the average for the graduating class was 2.1. Since each of these pupils was academically eligible to go on in school, it would appear that grades did not contribute greatly to reasons for dropping out.

Test scores on the Cooperative Reading Test administered one month before graduation disclosed the fact that 24 of the group were reading below the seventh-grade level, approximately three grades below their actual grade, while only four were reading up to grade standard. The Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Test, which had been administered to all pupils, yielded a range in IQ scores from 67 to 107, with an average of 87 and a median of 82 for the 54 students. In view of the lan-

guage problem of Spanish-American pupils, it can be assumed that scores on the Otis Test probably do not represent valid IQ's, but they may reasonably be considered to measure academic aptitude in terms of the competition present.

Did occupational interest have any relationship to drop-outs? Results of the Kuder Occupational Interest Inventory were available on 46 of the 54 pupils studied. In Table III the strongest occupational interests are indicated.

TABLE III

Occupation	No.
Outdoor .....	3
Mechanical .....	9
Computational .....	8
Scientific .....	0
Persuasive .....	1
Artistic .....	9
Literary .....	1
Musical .....	3
Social Service .....	5
Clerical .....	7
Unknown .....	8

It will be noted that in the so-called manipulative occupations—mechanical, artistic, and clerical—high frequencies are found, while in the so-called cogitative occupations—scientific, literary, and persuasive—low frequencies are found. Although the numbers considered are quite small, it did seem to us that occupational interest might definitely influence one's decision concerning enrolment in high school.

In addition to the analysis of cumulative record data, we sent questionnaires to the 54 pupils in an attempt to obtain from them reactions to possible reasons for not enrolling in high school. In spite of all our efforts to obtain replies by sending follow-up postcards, making telephone calls, and even house calls, we were able to obtain only a 50 per cent return. However, the overwhelming evidence from replies received indicated that financial difficulties predominated in causing pupils not to attend high school.

After studying our findings, we reached

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Mr. Young, coordinator of guidance and counseling in the Tucson, Ariz., Public Schools, directed a special study of the pupils who completed the ninth grade in junior high school but failed to enrol in the senior high school the following fall. As is often the case, the specific findings turned out to be different from the suppositions on the matter, and provided clues for a more direct attack on the situation.*

the conclusion that three major factors combined to influence these 54 pupils to remain away from high school: low academic aptitude, financial difficulties, and the fact that most of them live in the cultural atmosphere of the "old world" Spanish-American community. It is well known that many of the older Spanish-American people frown upon seeing their children obtain enough education to cause them to want to break away from the traditions and mores of the community.

There may be some interest in the "composite drop-out," or the person who would be considered the typical drop-out. This picture may be valuable to counselors, teachers, and administrators who wish to use all possible preventive measures.

This mythical person is a Spanish-American girl, sixteen and a half years of age. She comes from a large family who live in the oldest, or "slum," section of Tucson. The breadwinner of her family is a laborer and the home might be broken by death or separation. She has an IQ in the eighties, reads at the seventh-grade level, and made below-average marks during the ninth grade. There was not sufficient money to keep her in high school, so she got a job to help support the family. The cultural pattern of her home was such as to give her little or no encouragement to continue in school.

We felt that the number of drop-outs, although large enough to cause concern, was

not especially alarming. It would seem that counselors perhaps need to begin earlier with this particular cultural group to encourage them to remain in school. Also, it would seem that much appears to be beyond the influence of the counselor. In some families, because of economic factors or traditions, there seems to be little stimulation, motivation, or encouragement of the children to further their education. This problem can only be attacked through an active campaign to educate the parents to the value of education.

Knowing why certain pupils failed to enroll in high school is one thing, but doing something to reduce the number is another. A number of specific efforts were made in an attempt to cut down on the losses. Junior-high-school counselors singled out for special attention those pupils who seemed most likely to fall by the wayside. Many of their parents were interviewed. Some were assisted in finding part-time work so they might attend high school. Financial aid has been given some pupils by certain high-school organizations. Some junior high schools held special assemblies, calling attention to the drop-out problem, and using competition with other junior high schools as a motivating factor.

Further curriculum adjustments are being made, and there will be continuing checks to see whether these efforts are sufficient to enable us to hold more of our

junior-high-school graduates for senior high school.

### Epilogue

In the fall of 1953, we followed a program similar to that of the previous year to check summer drop-outs of junior-high-school graduates, with the following results:

TABLE IV

<i>Cause of Drop-Out</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Per Cent of Total</i>
Left the city .....	122	64.2
Joined armed forces .....	1	.5
Deceased or ill .....	3	1.5
Married .....	7	3.9
Attending private or parochial school .....	11	5.8
Working .....	27	14.2
Staying home .....	19	10.0
Total	190	100.

While the per cent of over-all loss in 1953 was approximately the same as that of 1952, it can be noted by comparing Tables I and IV that there was an increase in the number who left the city in 1953 over 1952, but a decrease in the number who were working or staying home. The multitude of variables which enter into a situation of this nature makes it impossible for one to state that our efforts have resulted in holding more pupils for high school. However, the results are encouraging, and each year efforts will be made continually to decrease summer drop-outs.

## Memories

By RUSSELL PETTIS ASKUE

*The school teacher replies to the former pupil who expects to be remembered.*

I learn a hundred pairs of names, my dear,  
With corresponding faces, every year;  
And though I do not wish to make you sad,  
You live in memory only if you're bad,  
Or very good, or very, very queer.

200 Drury High seniors answer:

# Why Do Young People Stay in High School?

By

WALTER G. PATTERSON

**Y**OU NEED a high-school diploma to get any job, even in a 5-and-10¢ store—even for marriage. Requirements are going higher all the time." This is a gross understatement, even though it says more than was intended by one senior when asked, "Would you be willing to tell in your own words the reasons why you attend Drury High School?"

This question was asked the 200 seniors of the class of 1953. When the seniors needed prompting, they were asked, "Did any person or persons influence you to stay in school," and "Was there anything about attending school other than what you have mentioned that caused or influenced you to stay in school?" The seniors were very cooperative and none was suspicious, indifferent, or hostile during the interview.

One hundred twenty-one seniors strongly believed that a high-school education is necessary to get a good job today and to get ahead in life. A senior reported, "In asking for a job, employers always ask me for my high-school diploma." Another senior told of his experience in working in an employment office during the summer. "I overheard persons being interviewed," he said, "and this was one of the first questions asked: How many years of college have you had?" This student did not need further urging to continue his education. Other seniors said:

1. I have been looking for a job, and most jobs require a high-school diploma.
2. Everyone needs a high-school education even if used just socially.

3. Older people and those who have been graduated told me that a diploma is necessary for a good job.

4. I want to make progress so as to meet competition for jobs.

School friends and associations were liked by 99 seniors. They liked the opportunity to meet new and interesting people and reported that if they had to make a decision about leaving or staying in school, they would think seriously before leaving their friends. Two statements showing the influence of the social class structure were made, "I observed two groups of young people—those in school and those out of school, and the two do not mix," and "I prefer Drury friends to those who have left school."

Both parents influenced 85 seniors to stay in school, while 31 were influenced only by the mothers. Relatives and friends were also helpful in keeping seniors in school. The fathers, guidance officer, and teachers were named by ten or fewer students. The mothers were named four times more frequently than were the fathers as having influenced seniors to stay in school. Convictions that high school is worthwhile grew out of such senior statements as:

1. My parents feel that education is important. Mother came from a foreign land and did not have much education and realizes the value of it.
2. I was influenced by my uncle who is well educated.
3. I asked the advice of many college and non-college men. They all encouraged me to prepare for college.
4. My brother who quit urged me to stay in school.

## EDITOR'S NOTE

*A good deal has been reported on why pupils drop out of high school. Dr. Patterson, principal of Drury High School, North Adams, Mass., has taken a look at the reverse side of the situation, in the belief that facts on why young people "persist in school to graduation" also may be useful. He put the question to the 200 graduating seniors at Drury High School—the class of 1953—and offers their answers. The article is based upon a field study, "Some Evaluations of the Holding Power of Drury High School," which the author made at Colorado State College of Education.*

5. My grandfather and grandmother encouraged me to graduate because I'll be the first one in my family to get a diploma.

6. My parents would not permit me to quit school. They drummed it into me. Neither one went very far in school. They had to quit and go to work. They were the only ones who had faith in me.

7. At the close of my sophomore year, mother gave me the choice of getting a job or going back to school. I chose to come back. It just didn't seem right to quit.

School was liked and enjoyed by 74 seniors. They liked the subjects and courses, the activities, athletic games, sports, and teachers. A liking for school seemed to have a strong influence in keeping students in school. A number of the seniors' comments were:

1. It's a happy life in school; I'd like to stay three years more.

2. I couldn't get the same subjects outside of school.

3. If I could not have had trade school, I'd have left school.

4. My teachers are helpful and understanding.

5. Liked high-school teachers because they put fun in their teaching, told jokes, etc.

6. Different from grammar school—breaks up the day—not in one room with one teacher.

7. I like the reasonable rules in assembly and classes. Respect is shown by the teacher when respect is given. (By a girl who had attended eight different schools.)

The subjects and courses liked and

named appear here in the order of their frequencies: chemistry, physics, biology, geometry, art, English, Italian, Latin, world history, United States history, drafting, government, industrial arts, band, music, typewriting, bookkeeping, arithmetic, home management, cooking, sewing, and machine shop.

The activities liked and named specifically were: proms, dances, baton twirling, assemblies, class meetings, talent shows, school newspaper staff, student government, cheering squad, and pep rallies. Games and athletics included both participants and spectators. Sports and games mentioned were track, skiing, football, basketball, and baseball.

Seniors were preparing for advanced education and training as follows: Sixty-eight were preparing for college; thirty planned to enter military service; twenty-seven wanted further education in business, technical, art, aviation, and apprentice schools. Both boys and girls planning to enter military service said that they would "get a better break" if they had their high-school diplomas. A number planned to enter military service and then go to college later at government expense.

Forty-seven seniors never thought about dropping out of school. As one interviewee said, "I accepted the fact that I have to go to school and that is that."

The seniors wanted to widen their general knowledge and expressed pleasure in learning. Thirty-six seniors were interested in learning more about the world and world affairs and knowledge of many kinds. Typical comments were:

1. Since older people made school possible, I feel that I should cooperate with the public education system by attending.

2. I want increased knowledge and experience so that I can grow up to take on responsibilities.

3. I am learning something new every day.

School was preferred to work by twenty-three seniors. A few of the reasons given were:

1. I worked last summer and found it easier going to school.
2. Just would not like to drop out—nothing to do except work in a factory.
3. I have a part-time job and know what it is to get dirty.
4. I observed those who dropped out. I would like to work but not yet.

After they had attended school until the age of sixteen, the end of the compulsory attendance period, eight seniors wanted to be graduated and the longer they attended school the more reason they saw to be graduated. They said:

1. Once you are in school with only a year more to go you may as well finish.
2. Having gone this far and being close to graduation, it would be silly to leave.
3. No one should quit after two or more years of high-school work. It is not right. We are forced to attend until sixteen, then we should complete the work.

The reasons 200 seniors of the class of 1953 stayed in Drury High School until graduation were that: they believed a high-

school education was necessary to get a good job and to get ahead in life; they liked their school friends and associations; they were influenced to stay in school by their parents and relatives, friends, guidance officer, and teachers; they liked and enjoyed school; they were preparing for advanced education; they never thought about dropping out; they wanted to increase their knowledge and to learn for its own sake; they preferred school to work; and they felt that when they had attended through age sixteen, it would be foolish to quit school.

Approximately 50 students who should have been graduated with the class of 1953 dropped out of school. What can be done to help more students continue in high school until graduation? The principal, teachers, and parents can strengthen the program of the school and influence the attitudes of the students by emphasizing those things that the seniors reported were influences and reasons for staying in school.



## Tricks of the Trade at the Blackboard

Have you ever ran afoul of a *squeaker*? Do you number among your acquaintances a *scratcher* or a *trailer*? Possibly you yourself are a *riser* or a *mystic*? All of these terms apply to the well-known art of blackboard defacement currently practiced by many classroom teachers.

*Squeakers* are those people who never realized that there is a proper grip and "angle of attack" in writing with chalk. *Scratchers* are those whose handwriting is poor at best, and perfectly abominable on a blackboard. *Trailers* allow their blackboard writing to trail down to the right and degenerate into a meaningless trickle. *Risers* usually start at a decent level but would end up writing on the ceiling if they could reach that high. *Mystics* love a secret; they not only scribble, but they keep their code characters small and dim, possibly as an eye exercise for students. One suggestion suffices for the correction of all these faults: experiment and practice. If your handwriting is poor, you might try manuscript writing (printing). Drawing horizontal lines in practice will correct a tendency to rise or trail.

Assume that you can write legibly on the blackboard, how are you at drawing? Every teacher needs

skill in drawing straight lines, circles, and simple solids, all *freehand*. For a straight line, the trick is to place the chalk at the starting point, rivet your eye on the end point, and sweep out the line on one easy, clean stroke. For a circle, use your arm as a radius, placing the elbow at the center and starting at the lowest point. Right-handers should draw circles clockwise; left-handers, counter-clockwise. The rudiments of drawing simple solids may be found in any book on art fundamentals. Mathematics teachers need not only freehand skills but a knowledge of blackboard tools and their uses. Incidentally, a yardstick with a small spool glued on for a handle makes an excellent blackboard straight-edge. Once again, in drawing as in writing, the key word is *practice*.

One last remark: special skills, such as ambidexterity with the chalk, are surprisingly popularizing influences among pupils. At any rate, whether we have any extraordinary skills or not, let's at least become proficient in the everyday skills of blackboard work.—CYRIL M. PIPKIN in *Peabody Journal of Education*.

# The Case of SHANNON VS. NOVELS

*English courses conditioned 20-year freeze*

By J. R. SHANNON

A BURNT CHILD hates the fire, and I was a burnt child with respect to novels. The story of how one man became conditioned against that form of literature, and later reconditioned, may have value to students of education at the secondary level—that level of school organization where bad conditioning in this one instance took place.

## *Childhood*

Reading readiness was not a term in pedagogical parlance in my childhood. In fact, the discoverer of that measure of maturity was only a boy then himself. But there probably was no question about my reading readiness. I read well enough. The material in the elementary-school readers was consumed at such a rate that my teachers ranked me at the head of the class.

One day in particular, I remember, when I was in the third grade, the teacher announced that she was going to have her prize pupil come forward and read aloud extemporaneously a story from a book she held in her hand. I looked all around to see who the bright boy was, and lo, it was I. (The story was about a cat getting into a pan of dough, making a mess, and being chased out with a stick—the origin of *domestic*.) I had reading readiness but not novel readiness.

My parents tried hard to get me to read novels, but I was not apt. *Gulliver's Travels*, *Monte Cristo*, *Swiss Family Robinson*, *Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea*, *Robinson Crusoe*, and a beautifully bound and illustrated copy of *Rip Van*

*Winkle* were among the classics my parents showered around me before I was ten, but only parts of the last two interested me in the least. My eye followed the lines and my hand turned the pages of the other novels, but my mind read not a paragraph.

A glimpse of hope shone in my literary life when I was eleven to fourteen, but it did not last. All of the boys of my acquaintance during those years had a flair for Alger books, and I read every book which that early apostle of free enterprise ever wrote. But when I got to high school, that sort of thing was frowned upon. To be sure, nothing would bore me more than to have to read one of those rags-to-riches stories now, but it was different then. "When I was a child, I spoke as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child; but when I became a man, I put away childish things."

## *Adolescence*

It was in grades nine to eleven that the dirt was done. I had good English teachers. I liked all three of them and admired one most highly. Their methods were good, with one exception, and their personalities wholesome. It was the novels included in the course of study which marred me.

The one exception in teaching procedures which annoyed me then and amuses me now was no fault of the three teachers. They did the best they could. It was the system they worked under. The poor things were required to follow the course of study, and the course was wrong. It gave three months to *Ivanhoe*.

A short stint was assigned each day, and the teacher was supposed to plan enough worthy activity around that stint to keep him and the class worthily occupied for forty minutes. But the teacher could not do that; about ten minutes' worth of worthy activity was all that the most resourceful teacher could conjure up. Much of the remaining thirty minutes was killed by oral reading. In case some pupil accidentally got interested and, reading ahead of the assignment, stepped beyond the boundary of the daily stint in his discussion, he was rebuked with "Oh Oh! Don't get ahead of the story."

Bulwer-Lytton's *Last Days of Pompeii*, Thackeray's *Henry Esmond*, Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice*, and George Eliot's *Silas Marner* were endured, and in some spots enjoyed. But Dickens and Scott were too much. I finally lost consciousness on *Kenilworth*.

With all English requirements met by the end of the eleventh grade, I boasted my determination never to read another novel. And I lived up to that vow for over twenty years.

#### Early Adulthood

The first half of my adulthood was too crowded with professional duties, family responsibilities, and social, civic, and fraternal obligations to allow much time for recreational reading. But when time permitted, I enjoyed poetry, drama, biography, short stories, and expositions on travel, politics, religion, and current affairs. Novels got only one short peep-in.

Fifteen years after *Kenilworth*, I returned to my home city (I had been away as an itinerant high-school teacher) as a professor in the state college. It was not long thereafter that I encountered my most admired English teacher. We fell on each other's necks and wept, and then she put me on the spot.

"John, what are you reading? Are you reading any novels?"

"I haven't read a novel since I got out of the eleventh grade."

Thereupon, the dear English teacher pointed a finger at me and said, "Now don't let me catch you on the street again until you have read a novel."

"Yes, Miss Hayward."

"You are teaching psychology. Therefore, you should enjoy some good psychological novel. I just finished one which might appeal to you. You must try it. It is *The Story of San Micalé*."

"Yes, Miss Hayward."

Since my daily walk to the college took me right by the high school where Miss Hayward taught, I dared not neglect the novel she had recommended. But it wasn't any use. *San Micalé* was a psychological novel of a sort, but a poor sort. It seemed that the man who wrote it was pathological. The book's psychological aspects, all morbid, seemed forced and far-fetched. As a result of what impressed me as a bad choice for renewing my interest in novels, I did not finish the book. Fortunately, I did not meet Miss Hayward soon enough afterwards to be held to account.

The twenty-year freeze came to an end through the suggestion of a colleague at the college. Dean Weng and I were talking about my bitter experience with novels, in-

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

Dr. Shannon, a former professor of education, recently retired "to catch up on novel reading." But until he was almost 40 he avoided novels as he would avoid the plague. In this "novel autobiography" he tells the story of his life as it touched upon, or shrank from, novel reading, in the hope that it will be instructive to English teachers. It was in his high-school English courses that he learned to despise novels. He says that reading readiness and "novel readiness" are two different things. And we have an awful feeling that his term is about to creep herewith into the professional jargon and become a cliché.

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cluding *San Micale*, and he made a better nomination.

"I believe you would like Rolvaag's *Giants in the Earth*," he said. "Rolvaag is a Scandinavian-American, and his book depicts the hard life of the Scandinavian rural immigrants. Give it a try before you swear off novels forever."

"Good enough." And the book proved good enough—even better than good enough. I read it clear through, the first novel I had read voluntarily since I got out of the eighth grade. When I returned the book to its shelf in the library, I saw Rolvaag's *Peder Victorious*. Remembering Peder's birth in the novel I was returning, I took the second Rolvaag novel off the shelf without anybody's suggesting or urging that I do so. My reconditioning was being effected.

There are few things a normal person hates doing worse than doing nothing, and I am normal. Shortly after reading *Peder Victorious*, I had an empty, rainy Sunday afternoon at home.

"What to do? What to do?" So I sought escape from ennui in my own little home library. Somehow, Hawthorne's *Scarlet Letter* caught my eye.

"That? I tried reading that when I was in high school, and I went to sleep and fell out of my chair, it was so dull." But a dull book is better than nothing on a dull rainy day.

"Okay, okay, I'll give it another try." I sank into an easy chair by the glowing fireplace.

Whoever said you can't teach an old dog new tricks, didn't know dogs. I was approaching forty, and for the first time in my life I read a novel from cover to cover without laying it down.

"Now that really is a psychological novel. That is the best psychological novel ever written."

Who was I to say so? I had tried only one before. But my impulsive appraisal was corroborated shortly after by a newspaper ac-

count that a jury of critics had picked *Scarlet Letter* as the best psychological novel in the English language. Some years later, another jury of experts chose it as the best novel in any language.

Why had I gone to sleep on *Scarlet Letter* at sixteen but found it fascinating at thirty-eight? Simply because I had not lived long enough at sixteen to have the experience to understand and appreciate it. It was over my head. I was too immature.

Middle-aged teachers, well-intentioned, read some novel they appreciate, and then say, "Everybody should read this. We shall put it on the required list for high-school pupils." They don't stop to think about the difference between their degree of maturity and that of their pupils. My parents had made the same mistake when I was under ten. To be sure, there has been some improvement in high-school reading lists since 1910-13, the years of my anti-novel conditioning, but how much improvement?

#### Later Adulthood

"Better late than never" is a worthy adage, but at my age at the time of my reconditioning, I had a long row to hoe in trying to catch up.

World War II helped a lot. Before the War, I did not appreciate what *soldier* meant as a verb. Three years as an officer in the Air Corps taught me, except that instead of "doing only enough to escape punishment or discharge" (Webster), I did exactly what I was ordered to do—mostly nothing. Fortunately, every base to which I was assigned had an excellent library, and I was able to make long strides. Those three years of novel reading on Army pay probably brought me up to where I would have been in my consumption of novels by the time I was fifty if I had not learned to hate novels and if I had not joined the Air Corps.

I caught up on a lot of Hawthorne, read everything ever published by Mark Twain, Theodore Dreiser, Upton Sinclair, and Sin-

clair Lewis, and read *Pride and Prejudice* twice more to relish the masterful craftsmanship I was unable to appreciate at seventeen. I got a fresh start on Dickens, Henry James, Emile Zola, Balzac, Irving Stone, and Victor Hugo. I even took another fling at Sir Walter Scott (*Guy Mannering*), but found him as fine a substitute for sleeping pills as I had while in high school.

To catch up further on my lost reading, I retired at the age of fifty-eight. Now I

can soak myself in joys I missed until I was nearly forty.

But how about burnt high-school graduates who can't join the Army at forty-seven or retire at fifty-eight? Why should anybody have to wait that long anyway? How about those who are not stimulated and advised by their friends so that they learn to love novels only at middle age? Care and foresight must be exercised to see that they are not badly conditioned in the first place.

## Recently They Said:

### British English

It was amazing indeed to find that my class and I could be divided by a "common language." To be understood better, I rapidly acquired the local jargon. My "zeros" in arithmetic soon became "naughts." Urging them "to continue" brought only blank stares, so now I murmur "carry on" and work proceeds. Asking them to stand in line didn't produce favorable results; now I shout "queue up" and get immediate action.—EVELYN BLEMKER, American exchange teacher in England, in *Indiana Teacher*.

### Variations Are Astounding

... There is the question of the work load of the English teacher. Variations in policy over the State of Texas are astounding. In one school I know, English teachers have no more than 100 pupils in four classes, with one period daily for each teacher to devote entirely to individual work. But in another, better known city system (better known for football, that is) each English teacher has from 150 to 175 pupils in five classes.

Administrators obviously have not made up their minds as to a uniformity of conditions which might be expected to produce a reasonable number of high-school graduates who can read, write, and speak well.—E. G. BALLARD in *The Texas Outlook*.

### Waste

Today, too often the school maintains a curriculum and the community establishes a separate recreation program. It seems inconceivable that the individuals and groups within the community ever

intended a cleavage between the recreation and education aspects of this community curriculum. In maintaining the dichotomy, the community is forced to accept duplication and inexcusable waste of resources. Surveys like those conducted in Boston and New Orleans bring this condition into clear focus.—JOHN L. HUTCHINSON in *Teachers College Record*.

### Cafeteria Clean-Up

Some schools permit the sale of carbonated beverages and candy to compete with meats, fruits, vegetables, and milk—the very foods that provide needed nutriment for growing boys and girls. Lawrence, Kan., High School found that when the cafeteria stopped selling candy and soft drinks and emphasis was placed on milk, more than 98 per cent of the students began taking milk with their lunches.—RUBY SCHOLZ in *Kansas Teacher*.

### "The Textbook"

Every teacher and every school administrator has at one time or another faced the issue of "the textbook." This issue has been debated from "pillar to post" by enthusiasts who argue at opposite poles. There are those who compare textbooks with the stone tablets on which the Ten Commandments were revealed to mankind. There are others who suggest that they are "Books of Sin" designed to corrupt children. The average teacher is subjected to both of these viewpoints, and hence develops ambivalent attitudes toward a concoction of ink and paper which in and of itself is basically harmless.—GEORGE GREISEN MALLINSON in *School Science and Mathematics*.

# *The COINS of the U. S.:* Symbols of a People

By  
FRANK MEYER

COINS of the United States serve not only as a medium of exchange, but also as an expression of the ideals and aspirations of a people. They contain a symbolism which should be understood and prized by every American citizen.

While these coins are commonly used, they carry devices and legends which are little noted or seldom comprehended. It will be, therefore, a profitable experience for all students to study and gain an appreciation for the symbolic significance of the coins of their country. The material in this article is intended to assist teachers in explaining all the marks and symbols on current United States coins.

All coins must, by law<sup>1</sup>, have on one side an impression emblematic of liberty, the word "Liberty," and the year of the coinage. The reverse side must bear the inscription, "United States of America," and "E Pluribus Unum," and must state the value of the coin. The quarter, half-dollar, and dollar are required to show a figure of an eagle on the reverse. The motto, "In God We Trust," has to be inscribed on all denominations on which it appeared prior to May 18, 1908. In fact, practically all coins in circulation today, except the Buffalo nickel, bear these words. All being coined at present carry the motto and have it inscribed on the face (obverse).

It is understandable that the act of Congress, dated April 6, 1792, establishing the mint should require on the coins of the new nation "an impression emblematic of liberty with an inscription of the word LIB-

ERTY." Independence had been won recently, and "liberty" had been a leading slogan in the late conflict. So from the first and unto this day, United States coins, by emblem and word, have proclaimed to the world that this is a land of liberty where the individual is free, under law, to live his own life.

In 1787 the new United States adopted the bald eagle as its emblem. Ancient Romans had used a golden figure of an eagle to stand for skill, strength, and bravery. Benjamin Franklin thought that the wild turkey, an American bird, would be more appropriate, and John J. Audubon claimed that the eagle was not a brave and noble bird. But since 1789 this American emblem has been shown on many coins to point up the fearless spirit and power of this nation.

"E Pluribus Unum" was first used on coins in 1795 but it was not until 1873 that Congress decided it should appear on all solid money. It is the national motto of the United States and was suggested by Thomas Jefferson as part of the design of the Great Seal. "E Pluribus Unum" is a Latin phrase meaning "out of many, one" or "one out of many." Initially it referred to the fact that one nation had been created out of many colonies. Today it emphasizes the truth that this is "one indestructible Union composed of many indestructible states," and that this is one people formed from many races, nationalities, and creeds.

During the Civil War many people suggested to Salmon P. Chase, the Secretary of the Treasury, that God should be recog-

<sup>1</sup> United States Code, Title 31, Section 324.

nized on the country's coins. On November 30, 1861 Secretary Chase wrote to the director of the Mint that "no nation can be strong except in the strength of God, or safe except in His defense. The trust of our people in God should be declared on our national coins. You will cause a device to be prepared without unnecessary delay with a motto expressing in the fewest words possible this national recognition." The first use of the words as they now appear was on a two-cent piece in 1864. All coins now minted carry this motto on their face and proclaim that this nation has confidence in the existence, power, and love of God.

The reason for inscribing the name of the country, the denomination of the coin, and the year of coinage on each piece of money is self-evident. Precedents for such a practice are found in ancient history.

Another custom which dates from remote antiquity is to have the signature or initials of the designer engraved upon the coin die. All coins in current use, except the Jefferson nickel, have on them the initial or initials of the designer. The place to look for these on each coin is indicated in Table I. The name and initials of the designer are also given.

United States coins are minted at Philadelphia, Denver, and San Francisco. A small "D" for Denver or an "S" for San Francisco is placed on coins manufactured in those cities. The location of the letter (mint mark) varies with the denomination of the coin, and is mentioned in Table I. The coins without a mint mark, with the exception of certain Jefferson nickels to be considered later, are produced at Philadelphia.

The general description given here and Table I will explain most of the devices, legends, and marks on United States coins. However, each coin now in general use will be considered in some detail to point out details of special significance. No attempt has been made to cover all coins in circulation. This article is concerned only with the

Lincoln cent, and the current and immediate past issues of other coins.

### One Cent

Distribution of the Lincoln cent began in 1909, the centennial of the Great Emancipator's birth. No one will deny that Lincoln is "emblematic of liberty," but many did oppose the issuance of a portrait coin. The Lincoln cent is the first portrait coin in the regular series, and in the words of a former director of the Mint, "It shattered the long-standing prejudice against the use of portraits on coins of the country. The sentiment aroused during the 100th anniversary celebration of Lincoln's birth proved stronger than prejudice and the coin in question was the result."

The twin devices on the back of the cent represent wheat heads. Mint officials explain that their only significance lies in the designer's interpretation, and that is not known. One might conjecture that he meant to indicate the importance of agriculture to the nation's welfare.

### Five Cents

*Jefferson:* The author of the Declaration of Independence certainly qualifies as an

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### EDITOR'S NOTE

*There are some facts about common, current U. S. coins that you and your pupils probably don't know, and features that you perhaps haven't noticed. Mr. Meyer, who wants to acknowledge the help of Miss Eleonora Hayden, of the office of the director of the Mint, explains the details of our coins and their symbolism. He is back teaching social studies in Grand Haven, Mich., Junior High School after a year's leave of absence on a Ford Fellowship, during which he worked for his Congressman in Washington, D. C. This is a companion article to his "Dollar Bill: Its Day in Class," which appeared in the March 1954 CLEARING HOUSE.*

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TABLE I  
LOCATION OF DESIGNER'S INITIALS AND MINT MARKS

Coin	Date of Issue	Designer	Initials	Location of Initials	Location of Mint Marks
<i>One Cent</i> Lincoln . . . . .	1909-date	Victor D. Brenner	VDB	On shoulder as bust meets rim <sup>1</sup>	Under the date
<i>Five cents</i> Jefferson . . . . .	1938-date	Felix Schlag	omitted		Right of image of Monticello <sup>2</sup>
Buffalo . . . . .	1913-1938	James E. Fraser	F	Under the date	Reverse; under "Five Cents"
<i>Dime</i> Roosevelt . . . . .	1946-date	John R. Sinnock	JS	Below image, to left of date	Left of base of torch
Liberty . . . . .	1916-1945	Adolph A. Weinman	AAW <sup>3</sup>	To right of neck of Liberty	Reverse; to right of the word "one"
<i>Quarter</i> Washington . . . . .	1932-date	John Flanagan	JF	Base of image; above unit digit of date	Reverse; above second "R" in "Quarter"
Liberty . . . . .	1916-1930	Herman McNeil	M	Near edge, to right of Liberty's feet	Obverse; left of date
<i>Half-Dollar</i> Franklin . . . . .	1948-date	John R. Sinnock	JRS	On shoulder as bust meets rim	Above block of wood holding bell
Liberty . . . . .	1916-1917	Adolph A. Weinman	W	Reverse; end of eagle's tail	Reverse; left of "Half-Dollar" is below branch, near rim <sup>3</sup>
<i>Dollar</i> Peace . . . . .	1921-1935 <sup>4</sup>	Anthony de Francisci	AF <sup>5</sup>	Under bust	Reverse; tip of eagle's wing
Liberty . . . . .	1878-1904	George T. Mason	M	Both sides; on truncation of bust; on ribbon that unites branches on reverse	Reverse; under eagle and olive wreath

<sup>1</sup> Some coins of 1909 marked; none marked from 1909-1918; marks reappear, 1918-date.

<sup>2</sup> Silver alloy pieces of 1942-1945 marked with a P, S, or D above the dome of the house.

<sup>3</sup> 1916-1917 on obverse, under "In God We Trust."

<sup>4</sup> No silver dollars have been coined since 1935.

<sup>5</sup> These initials were superimposed.

emblem of liberty. Jefferson's home, Monticello, located about two and a half miles from Charlottesville, Va., is shown on the reverse of this coin. In commenting on the new portrait coins, former director of the Mint, Mrs. Ross, wrote, "These eminent personages exemplify the ideals which are so near and dear to the hearts of the American people."

Between 1942 and 1945, when nickel was a critical war material, five-cent pieces were manufactured from a silver-copper-manganese alloy. To identify these coins a

fairly large P, S, or D was placed on the reverse side above the dome of the house, indicating at which mint the coin was made.

*Buffalo*: It may be somewhat difficult to see how an Indian or a buffalo (bison) could be emblematic of liberty. James E. Fraser, who designed the Buffalo nickel, has this to say, "In designing the Buffalo nickel, my first object was to produce a coin which was truly American, and that could not be confused with the currency of any other country. . . . The great herds of bison that roamed

the western plains played an important role in that great American epic, 'The Winning of the West.'

"With the Indian head on the obverse, we have made a perfect unity in theme, truly American. It has a pertinent historical significance, and is in line with the best traditions of centuries of coin design where the purpose was to memorialize a country or a nation."

#### Dime

*Roosevelt:* Any man honored with the presidency of the United States is *per se* a symbol of liberty. A president who led his country against despotic conquerors would be most secure as a leader for freedom. The current dime honors the thirty-second president.

The reverse side carries "The Torch of Liberty centered with the olive branch of peace on the left, and to the right the oak branch signifying strength and independence."

*Liberty:* According to the director of the Mint in 1916, "the obverse shows a head of Liberty with a winged cap. The head is firm and simple in form, the profile forceful. The reverse shows a design of the bundle of rods, with battle-ax, known as 'Fasces,' and symbolical of unity, wherein lies the Nation's strength. Surrounding the fasces is a full-foliaged branch of olive, symbolical of peace." The joining of these two symbols is quite common in American imagery. America believes in and loves peace, but is

ever united and strong against evil and oppression.

#### Quarter-Dollar

*Washington:* The "Father of His Country," who won independence on the battlefield, presided at the Constitutional Convention, and set the course as chief executive, is indeed "first in liberty." The eagle, required by law on the reverse, stands with outstretched wings on a fasces: strength, power, vigilance, unity. Below is the olive branch: conciliation, peace. The Washington quarter was issued in 1932 in commemoration of the bicentennial of the first president's birth.

*Liberty:* This coin was conceived during the war in Europe in 1916. The director of the Mint reported that "the design of the 25¢ piece is intended to typify in a measure the awakening interest of the country to its own protection. . . . In the new design Liberty is shown as a full-length figure, front view, with head turned toward the left, stepping forward to the gateway of the country, and on the wall are inscribed the words, 'In God We Trust.' . . . The left arm of the figure of Liberty is upraised, bearing the shield in the attitude of protection, from which the covering is being drawn. The right hand bears the olive branch of peace."

The eagle on the back is in flight, and on both sides are thirteen stars, one for each of the original states.

TABLE II  
SOME PHYSICAL FACTS ABOUT UNITED STATES COINS

Denomination	Number of Pieces Produced in Fiscal 1953	Gross Weight of each coin (Grains)	Metal Content
One Cent.....	1,092,044,380	48.00	95% copper, 5% tin & zinc <sup>1</sup> 75% copper, 25% nickel <sup>2</sup> } 900 parts of pure silver and 100 parts of copper alloy
Five Cents.....	106,437,280	77.16	
Dime.....	265,747,473	38.58	
Quarter.....	106,640,073	96.45	
Half-Dollar.....	48,693,688	192.90	
Dollar.....	none	412.50	

<sup>1</sup> During 1943 a zinc-coated steel cent was coined.  
See text on wartime five-cent piece.

*Half-Dollar*

*Franklin:* While Benjamin Franklin never was president, he helped to write and did sign the Declaration of Independence, the Treaty of Peace in 1783, and the Constitution of the United States. Director Mrs. Ross said that "it was the outstanding contribution of Benjamin Franklin in the early years of this nation as statesman, scientist, and philosopher that prompted the placing of his portrait upon a United States coin." Secretary of the Treasury Snyder pointed out that "his face on the new half-dollar will serve as a potent reminder that thrifty financial management is as important to individuals and to society today as it was in Franklin's time."

While the eagle with outstretched wings appears on the reverse, the dominant symbol is the Liberty Bell. A close examination will reveal these words or parts of words on the bell:

of Lev. XXV VS<sup>3</sup> X Proclaim Liberty  
ouse in Philada. by order of the A  
Pass and Stow  
Philada  
MDCCLIII

The full text on the Liberty Bell reads: "Proclaim Liberty throughout all the land unto all the inhabitants thereof Lev. XXV VS<sup>3</sup> X By order of the Assembly of the Province of Pennsylvania, for the State House in Philada. Pass and Stow MDCCLIII." Pass and Stow recast the bell after it was damaged while being tested.

*Liberty:* The liberty half-dollar is described by the Mint director as being a

<sup>2</sup> These two initials are superimposed.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*

"full-length figure of Liberty, the folds of the Stars and Stripes flying to the breeze as a background, progressing in full stride toward the dawn of a new day. She is carrying branches of laurel and oak, symbolic of civil and military glory. The hand of the figure is outstretched in the bestowal of the spirit of liberty. On the reverse is an eagle perched high upon a mountain craig, his wings unfolded, fearless in spirit and conscious of his power. Springing from a rift in the rock is a sapling of mountain pine, symbolic of America."

*Dollar*

*Peace:* "The 'Peace Dollar' of 1921 commemorates the declaration of peace between the United States, Germany, and Austria, exchanges of peace treaty ratifications having been made in Berlin on Nov. 11, 1921, and in Vienna on Nov. 8, 1921, and peace having been proclaimed by the President of the U. S. on Nov. 14 and 17, 1921 respectively," reports the director of the Mint in 1922. "On the obverse is a female head emblematic of Liberty, wearing a tiara of light rays, and the word 'Liberty'; on the reverse is an eagle perched on a mountain top, holding in its talons an olive branch, witnessing the dawn of a new day; the word 'Peace' also appears."

*Liberty Head:* The head of Liberty faces left. The word "Liberty" is inscribed on the liberty cap. In the lady's hair are cotton bolls and wheat heads. Around are thirteen stars. The reverse shows an eagle with wings displayed erect; the head is turned to the left. An olive branch is in his right claw and three arrows in the left. Around the edge is an olive wreath.



The school lunch program should foster good food habits and safeguard the health of our children. Any school program which does not have these as goals has no right to exist.  
RUTH CUTTER in *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*.

# ACCENT *on* ASSETS:

## Arizona's Children's Colony

By  
WILLARD ABRAHAM

IF ALL THE stories are true about the terrible conditions in some public and private institutions for mentally retarded children in other states, Arizona should be doubly proud of its Children's Colony, opened in March 1952 and providing for 252 boys and girls. It is located between the population centers of Phoenix and Tucson, near Coolidge.

One Sunday afternoon a graduate class of teachers visited the Children's Colony, intending to spend only an hour. They stayed four hours, and many planned to make a return visit. This institution differed from others they had visited in various parts of the country, they agreed. What, specifically, were some of those differences?

1. Cleanliness was the factor mentioned most by these visitors—in dormitories, dining rooms, clothing, and on the grounds. A related item was the "wide spaces" feeling, the spacious grounds and distances between buildings, the absence of fences, the room for expansion. The Colony's doors lock only from the *inside*.

2. Warmth, sympathy, understanding, and friendliness were words used to describe the general atmosphere. That those feelings permeated the entire institution was obvious to teachers alert to activities and attitudes planned and prepared just for the benefit of those passing through.

3. Identical food is served to staff and children.

4. A long, detailed family history blank is filled out and *used*, accompanied by a thorough testing program in the hands of well-qualified personnel.

5. With about 30 per cent Spanish-

American children, and a few from Negro and Indian families, there is no trace of segregation or prejudice. These are *all* children with problems—but those problems do not include the color of their skins or their nationalities.

6. "Happiness First—All Else Follows" is the motto of the Colony, referred to in one of its annual reports with this explanation: "Besides making for receptivity happiness is therapeutic in itself. One way of accomplishing this is by giving the child a sense of 'Belonging.' . . . At the Colony, it is possible that for the first time in his life he will have the opportunity of belonging because the Colony has been built and is operated for him."

And there are many other points of distinction about this institution, which has children ranging in age from infancy to a few who are already in their twenties. "He has an adult body with a little person running around inside him," said the director of training in referring to one of the latter group. Although this place has been planned for children under 21, residents may stay on beyond that age for their entire life. Unless the Colony expands quite a bit, in time it may house mainly old people!

The requirements for admission, in addition to age, are mental deficiency and three years' state residence of parents or guardians. Waiting lists and the need for establishing quotas have already developed in the short life of the Colony.

To make each child as independent and self-sustaining as his limited capacities will permit is the major objective. Because no cure is known for mental deficiency, all

## EDITOR'S NOTE

*Children's Colony, near Coolidge, Ariz., is a state school for mentally deficient children. Dr. Abraham and a group of teachers who visited it were pleasantly surprised to find it quite different from the other institutions of its kind that they had visited in various parts of the country. The author, who has contributed a number of reports on unusual schools to THE CLEARING HOUSE, is a professor of education at Arizona State College, Tempe, Ariz.*

efforts are applied here to reduce the effects of such deficiency by special training and care. Meeting the individual's immediate needs and anticipating those of the future put the "accent on assets." Instead of identifying the child by things he cannot do and setting him apart because of his failures, the emphasis is on his abilities. Through that approach it is found that disabilities may take care of themselves.

"What is more important is that he develops a feeling of success," states one of the Colony's publications. "In the case of many of these children, who have consistently been unable to meet the demands of competitive existence with others, success can transform personalities. Feelings of true success can cause within a child fundamental changes of attitude which transcend all other methods of improving thinking."

Even if there were no other reason for this being a desirable home for these children (and fortunately there are many other reasons), the financial aspect would be a drawing card—especially for those who have searched for private institutions and found their fees necessarily high and their condition sometimes unattractive, to put it mildly! For each child the Colony receives \$85 a month on a quarterly basis; the source depends on the financial status of the parents, since the money comes from them, the county where the family lives, or both on

the basis of an arrangement between the two.

Because of the prior educational experiences of many of the children, the Colony's school must be ever aware of that potentially explosive factor. Some have already had three, four, or more years of "negative schooling" where they were ridiculed, hurt, and excluded, put in "dummy classes," and had fingers pointed at them. If they were kept in a regular classroom situation, they were frequently the "isolates" in sociograms, and they knew it.

So their schooling here might start slowly, perhaps on a half-day basis, with emphasis on areas where they stand a good chance to succeed. Their teachers' expectations are limited, especially at the start, even in hand activities. The adults working with them know that there is no compensatory factor which makes mentally deficient children more capable than average children in manual fields, except for the capabilities which come from special emphasis in that direction.

The school program has three major segments—academic (core basis), music, and crafts (shop and sewing). The personnel consider every service of the institution as a training opportunity and a basis for pre-vocational and vocational training, since a major goal is to make as many as possible of the children ultimately self-sufficient.

The range in educational activities is from pre-school and kindergarten through the intermediate elementary grades, since that is as far as the children can usually profit from educational offerings. About 150 of the total population of 252 are now in school for all or part of the day. These activities are rounded out by motion pictures once a week, non-sectarian church services and Sunday School, outside play in the large areas provided, group singing, and recreational reading. A swimming pool and a number of television sets were gifts, and both are sources of enjoyment in this area of year-round spring and summer and

this era when TV has such a strong effect on the living habits of most of us.

The permissive atmosphere provides for home visits for some of the children, depending on them and their families. Those who do not go home find that the activities already mentioned, plus square dances, athletic events, and evening group meetings devoted to model planes and other interests (organized by faculty volunteers), fill their time adequately, without making them feel pressured in any way.

Physically the plant is not yet complete, but constantly being improved to be sure it becomes and remains the kind of place each of us would want if our own were there. Children are assigned to the various cottages by sex and age, with heterogeneous mental grouping. However, the current building program will help to separate the "middle grade" (35-50 IQ) and the "severely handicapped" (0-35 IQ) from the others, who may have an IQ up to 75. Each cottage is a unit by itself, with living, dining, and sleeping accommodations. An infirmary, commissary, school building, laundry, maintenance building, and administration building are the other structures now on the grounds.

Because corporal punishment is strictly forbidden, an effective disciplinary measure has been found to be the elimination of candy purchases on Friday afternoon in the

commissary. Similarity to the Army is found in the dormitory living and in some of the terminology used (such as O.D. and PX)—but the resemblance stops there.

This Children's Colony encourages visitors, and has had many thousands give it a thorough going-over through what they see, hear, and ask. Professional persons from other states and countries have found it an inspiring stop.

While it can accept only about one out of every three children in Arizona who need its kind of help, with those whom it does admit a job is done based on reason, ability, and human warmth. The Colony does not try to mislead parents about what it is capable of doing; there is no talk of raising intelligence, but there is plenty of both talk and action to help these children develop to their capacities, and to assist those with potentialities in productively rejoining the outside community.

Modestly and objectively its superintendent wrote:

"There have been no cures at the Colony. In view of our present state of knowledge there will be none. However, in the short time we have been in operation it is evident that the effects of mental deficiency can and are being ameliorated. Each day brings new evidence of the worthwhileness of the project and justification of its existence."



### *Java for Teacher*

The Malvern, Ark., High School Student Council took as one of their main projects this year the opening of the Student Council room during the noon hour to the teachers. Here coffee is served all during the hour.

This has done much to bring about a friendly relationship among the teachers and to give them an opportunity to know one another better.

The Council president appoints two students to serve for a two-week period. They go down before

noon, make the coffee and arrange the serving table. The two sponsors of the senior council along with the sponsor of the junior council alternate at the service during the hour, and the students return during the first period after lunch to clean up.

A congenial air and a feeling of relaxation exists as superintendent, principals, and teachers drop in as they find time for coffee and a friendly chat.—Mrs. H. H. OVERTON in *The Journal of Arkansas Education*.

# MUSIC FOR LIFE ADJUSTMENT

*A teaching experiment with emotionally disturbed pupils*

By  
PEARL BERKOWITZ and ESTHER ROTHMAN

THE PURPOSE of this article is to report upon and to evaluate a school music program, experimental in its concept, and designed to help the emotionally disturbed child make a better psychological adjustment in school.

The goal of the music program was primarily the socialization of the child, and secondarily, individual personal gratification in the academic areas. It was planned for a large age-range group, from seven to sixteen years of age, and was aimed at children who varied in diagnoses from simple neurotic and delinquent, to severely psychotic. The actual grade levels ranged from second grade all the way through high school.

Two classes participated in the teaching experiment. One group consisted of children from the second through the sixth grade, and the other group consisted of children in the seventh grade and higher, including high school.

The wide age and grade range within each group would ordinarily present unsurmountable problems. The nature of musical experience, however, is a commonality of terms, based upon the universality of human beings. There is a communication beyond verbal language, race differences, or cultural customs, uniting individuals and permitting them group expression and a feeling of "oneness." These emotional aspects made it possible to have relative unity in the music program, regardless of the age or grade levels within the groups concerned.

The disturbed child is a woefully un-

happy, inadequate individual who has met with little or no success in his school experiences. He responds to the school situation with aggression, either suppressed or overt, and with a deep underlying mistrust of adults. He is disdainful of academic activity or perhaps acutely worried about it. He has, in any case, adapted a form of behavior which has met, in part at least, his own emotional needs.

That these needs have largely been left ungratified in spite of his effort is one of the largest contributing factors in his maladjustment. His unhappy, stultifying school experiences can be, at the same time, both a cause and an effect of his maladjustment. Regardless of the clinical diagnosis of the difficulty, school failure is almost consistently a part of the total picture. The disturbed child is an outcast and society has made him well aware of this fact. He is a lonely child, lacking both any adequate means of socially acceptable expression and the ability to relate well to other human beings.

The primary objective of the program, then, was the socialization of the child and his subsequent better adjustment in the academic areas. Even though the classroom organization of a school in a hospital is not the same kind found in the more typical school, we hoped that this learning for social adjustment would be carried with the child into his regular school and would exert an influence upon the more ordinary events in the child's life. In addition to its own intrinsic value, the music program served as a motivation in helping the child

accept the whole school situation, even if the acceptance were on his own preferred terms. It helped the child to ease into the situation in a socially acceptable manner.

The music program was planned about the activities and equipment available within the school, and included group singing, rhythm band activities, individual piano instruction, and simply listening to both the phonograph and radio. All the musical activities selected were interspersed throughout the school day and became an integral part of the school curriculum. Each day was planned to include at least two music sessions, arranged in time to provide release after an academic activity which required a sedentary kind of concentration. There was enough flexibility and freedom, however, to permit a completely extemporaneous musical session if it should be initiated by the spontaneous enthusiasm of the group.

Children came into this program from various cultural backgrounds and with varying degrees of musical sophistication. Some had little or no experience with music, some were familiar with the popular tunes of the day, and some were advanced enough to enjoy the esoteric string quartets of Beethoven. No matter what the range of musical interest or ability, every child soon discovered that he had a voice and that he could sing. A singing activity was, therefore, the easiest, most available stimulus and the most opportune one with which to introduce the children to a group experience. The children loved to sing and enjoyed all forms of songs—popular, folk, rounds, and indeed, anything which was familiar to them.

Singing was an extremely gratifying experience because it did not depend upon previous training and because it permitted the child group participation and a feeling of belonging. The child never was faced with the threat of failure, and it was not unusual to find that a child who could not remember that two and three are five was

able to commit to memory twenty-five stanzas of a particular song which he liked. Group singing, as it progressed, provided opportunities for expression from the individual. The child who could harmonize with the group or lead the group with a solo performance received the approval of both his peers and the adults present. Much too frequently children confided that the praise they received for such a special contribution to the group was "the only time a teacher ever said I did something good."

Occasionally a real talent was discovered in just this way and led to a child requesting and receiving piano lessons. As far as it was possible to do so within the limited facilities available, piano lessons were given to children who requested them. In a number of cases, these lessons seemed to have a direct influence upon the behavioral turning point in the school lives of these children.

Some children, of course, hesitated to participate in the singing activity and insisted upon listening. Frequently, however, at the end of a song they would request a repetition or suggest the next selection, indicating thereby that they were enjoying the activity even while playing only a passive role. Children who never before had contributed voluntarily to a group became imbued with class spirit. Children who had been crying started to sing through their

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Music can have a favorable effect on the social and academic adjustment of emotionally disturbed children, say Mrs. Rothman and Miss Berkowitz. They teach elementary and secondary classes of such children in Bellevue Psychiatric Hospital in New York City. This is the latest of a number of reports on experiments with their pupils that have appeared in THE CLEARING HOUSE.*

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tears. Disruptive bullies released their energies in song.

No one was excluded from a singing activity. No one was labeled "a listener," even if the only discernible difference between *America* and *Buttercup* was the words. The value of the singing activity cannot be overestimated. The disturbed child never more closely resembled the normal than when singing in a group.

Another musical activity which required no training and also permitted group participation was the rhythm band. The simple striking instruments such as drums, tomtoms, tambourines, triangles, and cymbals were used. The children sat in a semi-circle around the piano, each with his particular instrument. Some short preliminary instructions in basic rhythms and their variations were given, not with a deliberate intent to develop any kind of technique, but merely to make the resulting sound a pleasant and satisfying one to all participants.

A youthful conductor performed before the group and indicated when a particular instrument played or stopped playing, according to his own natural inclination. Children of all ages, from the youngest right through adolescents, looked forward to this activity, which is customarily relegated to the kindergarten room. They were continually stimulated by it into really creative participation. Occasionally an over-enthusiastic player put an exuberant fist through a drum or tambourine, but fortunately this did not occur too often. The children frequently learned to use this particular activity as a means for abolishing depression or for expressing aggressive needs while constructively contributing to a performance enjoyed by the group. They became happier individuals, capable for a time, at least, of quiet contemplation and enjoyment.

The radio and phonograph also played an important role in the music program. Frequently, a group just listened to music while occupied with other activities, and

this seemed to calm the group atmosphere or to stimulate a periphery interest in new activities. Music which is enjoyable to listen to is most often that which has been heard before or that which has been repeated frequently enough to be incorporated into the background of the listener. Creative activity related to listening to music was constantly encouraged. The children wrote parodies to tunes, made up tunes, drew pictures to indicate what the music made them feel, and responded physically through body movement and dancing.

The rhythmic quality of the music was so stimulating at times that they made up steps, wrote stories about the dance, and often responded so faithfully to the same repeated musical phrase that it provoked the same body movements at each performance. One enthusiastic dancer could spark a whole group into dancing, and it was not unusual to find all the children freely making body movements to a record particularly suited to awaken these responses. It was felt that this particular type of freedom was a truly beneficial experience, valuable not only for its momentary satisfaction but also from a long-range, therapeutic view.

Although it is difficult to evaluate the program on an objective basis, an attempt was made after six months to delineate the benefits derived from the experiment. The two teachers involved in the experiment listed the specifics which they felt resulted directly from this program and contributed to the social development of each child. In addition, the children themselves were asked to formulate a classroom program for themselves according to their own desires, giving reasons for the activities chosen.

The children's evaluations were conclusive evidence that the music program was greatly significant and satisfying to them. Of the twenty-three children participating in the experiment, no one omitted a musical period. Some children included three or four a day at the expense of other subjects. All the children expressed spontaneous ver-

bal approval of the music program at different times during the teaching experiment. It was obvious that they had come to love the musical activity and to experience happy moments in participation. The teachers, too, felt that these moments were among the happiest of the whole school day.

In evaluating the program, the teachers listed separately the values derived, and came to many of the same conclusions. Basically, the conclusions were threefold.

First, there was a great improvement in the overt social behavior of the child, with aggressive impulses under better control, depressions less frequent, temper tantrums at a minimum, and withdrawn behavior less prominent.

Second, there was an apparent building up of self-respect and self-confidence on the part of the children, with an increased interest in academic achievement and ability to concentrate during academic periods. There seemed to be less fear of failure and

a reduction in anxiety when faced with a new school situation.

Third, there was a therapeutic emotional catharsis in which music served as a medium for the release of tensions and pent-up emotions.

In conclusion, it was noted that there was greater motivation to learning, particularly in the areas of reading and writing. The children recognized their academic need and developed interest in academic learning when faced with musical experiences which required reading of words, and which aroused curiosity in the reading of notes. There was an increased verbal activity centered around creative musical experiences.

The increased activity in the academic area was attributed to the fact that the learning was attached to a pleasurable experience, and although music is not the only pleasurable experience which could motivate children in this way, it is perhaps the easiest to include in the curriculum.



## The "Dawn Patrol" for Promising Science Students

The writer is a "five o'clock in the morning" man. He finds that time convenient for doing extra work which cannot be accomplished by working Saturdays and Sundays. He has used this extra time for research, for writing, and for devising scientific apparatus.

Twenty years ago three high-school chemistry students also became interested in doing some extra work for themselves. They appeared at 5 A.M. and reported for work, plans somewhat hazy, but willing. This willingness should not be wasted. The writer had been a disciple of Lowe, Scott, and Brinton, high-ranking analytical chemists, so he decided to take these boys through the complicated procedures of analytical chemistry, and thus began a methodical procedure based on the principles of college instruction.

The idea worked. The three students grew to ten or more in a couple of weeks. The program has continued unbroken to the present time and over the

twenty years this early morning class (referred to locally as the Dawn Patrol) has averaged about 20 students. Today, the instructor also appears at the laboratory every Saturday and often on Sunday afternoons. These students are all volunteers. They have access to the instructor's library and to the equipment that the department has, or can borrow. The instructor proposes experiments and oversees the work. He suggests certain research procedures which send the students out to find information in many fields.

The students become familiar with the libraries in the instructor's office, the high school, the Soil Conservation Service, and the University of New Mexico. The writer believes that research need not be delayed until the student is advanced in a college course, and the results obtained seem to bear out his conclusions.—E. R. HARRINGTON in *The Phi Delta Kappan*.

# READING REVIVAL

## at Westwood High School

By GEORGE REINFELD

TWO VERY PERTINENT criticisms of the school child today are that he cannot read well and that when he does read at all his choice is the comic book or at best the sports page of the daily tabloid.

In desperation some schools have posted a required reading list and have organized a number of formal book reports to "guarantee" that the child will read the "right things." Frequently, in an attempt to defend himself from a series of books which are forced upon him in this manner, the student resorts to a rotating system of book reports handed down by succeeding classes of graduates, or what is even simpler, he skims his book for the names of a few characters and the simple story line, missing the literary values of the book completely.

How many educators inspire a love of reading that will insure a wide contact with the better pieces of literature and still keep away from the book list and the formal book report that have outlived their usefulness in this modern-day world of movies and television?

During the depression of the thirties, the book trade was among the first casualties of the business world. In desperation the book club was promoted as a method of building up a regular book buying habit upon the part of reading adults. Since then there has appeared the specialty book club which appeals to the lover of the classics, the family man, the child, the mystery fan, and the science-fiction devotee. Book sales have rocketed and the publishing world has gone on to new heights in book sales. There

is something about the prospect of getting an extra book dividend that appeals to the book-buying public. This collector's habit may be used to advantage with the high-school student.

In several of the eighth-grade English classes at Westwood High School the Teen Age Book Club sponsored by *Scholastic Magazine* has proved to be a stimulant to these young readers. With a long list of 25-cent titles available in the form of paper covered books from the various companies, TAB is able to offer an attractive array of books which appeal to the high-school age group. Included in these listings are cowboy fiction, classics such as *Treasure Island* and *Seventeen*, puzzle books, sports novels and science adventure.

The pupil who would not read a "good book" might purchase *Shane*, having been thrilled by the movie version, and may continue with a steady diet of westerns, such as the works of Max Brand and Zane Grey, for the rest of the year. One thing that could be said for such a reading program is that for a non-reader it is better than no program at all and is in fact the first step on the road to a well-balanced selection of books.

Of course, not everyone in the group will be reading superficial literature. The brighter child will order *The Book of Knowledge*, Fletcher Pratt's *Short History of the Civil War*, or Crane's *Red Badge of Courage*. The self-help bugs will want *Home Canning* and *The Pocket Cook Book*. Somehow these people must be permitted to share their reading experiences

with those who are just beginning to be selective in their reading. A proper sharing of experiences may induce the bookworm to read John R. Tunis' *Iron Duke* as a change from the advanced readings in higher philosophy which he has been perusing. The change will do both of these groups good.

The way in which this sharing has been brought about here at Westwood High has been through the use of the Book Show as developed by Professor Lawrence H. Conrad of the State Teachers College at Montclair, N.J. When the class orders books, they have already formed natural-interest groups. Everyone who has ordered *The Bat* shares the common interest of discovering the murderer. The readers of *Tales of the South Pacific* will all have had a vacation on the warm tropic isles. The space cadets who are reading *Space on my Hands* will all be "blasting off" to class for the next week with thoughts that are "out of this world." Having formed an interest group by choice, there is a naturally motivated desire among the group to present their book to the class.

Each group becomes a committee whose purpose is to set up a book show for class presentation. These shows are not professional endeavors in the sense that elaborate staging and memorization of scripts will require long hours of preparation. The requirements are simple. The show is to be some form of creative presentation—a drama, radio or TV show, puppet show, quiz program or what you will. It must run for twenty minutes but may run longer. Scripts may be read so long as the reading is well done. The object, of course, is to introduce the book to the class so that they may decide whether they would like to read it.

Several ten-minute meetings should be allowed for planning the type of show to be given. The only considerable class time devoted to preparation is a one-period re-

hearsal allotted to each group on the day before their show is to go on. Left to their own ingenuity and devices, the students will come up with a remarkable array of dramatic devices.

After the first show a spirit develops in each group to outdo the previous show in originality of presentation. A group of sophomores in College High at Montclair went so far as to produce a home movie of space travel for their show. Here at Westwood an eighth-grade group prepared color slides of a number of circus animals for a show based on *Circus Doctor*. A recent production of the aforementioned *The Bat* featured a darkened auditorium illuminated only by dull red footlights. As the class entered, the strains of the theme from "Dragnet" set the mood for an excellent study in crime.

The best result of the whole scheme is apparent when after several sets of monthly shows the cowboy specialist changes his pattern ever so slightly. One month he will order two books. The second selection he may sheepishly explain is for his father or some other person. He may never drop the cowboy habit—and indeed, why should he? Bertrand Russell is known to read his mystery a day. The test of any reading program should be whether the student develops a balanced reading program and an open mind toward all sorts of books.

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Several of Mr. Reinsfeld's English classes in Westwood, N. J., High School belong to a teen-age pocket book club. He says that during the depression of the thirties book clubs helped to stimulate book buying when publishers' business was declining, and that he has found that the "depression" in book reading by young people can be fought similarly by the pocket-book plan for English classes.*

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# Creed for PUBLIC SCHOOLMEN

By BERNARD LEIBSON

**I** BELIEVE in the public schools as an institution of the people; that it was designed to teach the youth of America, through daily living, to work and play with all men regardless of race, creed, or color.

*I believe* that the spirit of the public schools is the same as the spirit of all religions; that the school teaches, by precept and practice, the basis of the Moral Law: Love thy neighbor as thyself; that it needs no dogma to teach justice, mercy, and humility; that it stands foursquare on the platform that there is no *one* way to serve.

*I believe* that the public school is but one educating influence affecting the child; that it carries great responsibility but cannot assume all of it; that every member of society, regardless of calling, has a share in that responsibility; that only as the entire community adopts unified aims and parallel procedures can youth be raised to manhood without conflict and without confusion.

*I believe* in the democratic process; that it is a method by which man assumes responsibility for himself and for his fellowmen; that democracy cannot be relegated to one phase of living; that the social cancer, which can destroy it, starts in that unit, however

small, in which democracy is not permitted to function.

*I believe* that the public school is humanity-centered; that the child and his society are both centers around which the curriculum revolves; that the full dignity of each individual is realized only as the dignity of all is realized; that if either the individual or society becomes the center to the detriment of the other, the school fails in its function.

*I believe* in the nobility of the teaching profession; that, if redeemed from inhibiting tradition, from social and economic inferiority, and from burdens adversely affecting teacher and pupil, it has the potentialities for raising mankind to heights undreamed of.

*I believe* in tenure as a dignifying principle; that it imposes a great responsibility as it confers a benefit; that to take the place of the refining action of open competition, it requires self-discipline, self-evaluation, and self-improvement.

*I believe* that there is no division between the supervisory and teaching staffs; that the problems of one are the problems of the other; that to the extent that the supervisor separates himself from the teaching situation, and to the extent that the teacher divorces himself from administrative and supervisory problems, to that extent is his contribution as an educator diminished.

*I believe* that power can be, but need not be, dangerous; that it can corrupt, but need

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*Mr. Leibson, principal of Olinville Junior High School, The Bronx, N. Y., states his convictions about the responsibilities and the opportunities of all of us who labor in the public schools.*

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not do so; that it becomes evil when coupled with conceit; that it is good when accepted as a trust; that the power of a teacher over his pupils and of a supervisor over his teachers, when exercised within democratic controls, is transformed into leadership.

*I believe that leadership is a thing of the spirit; that it does not come with the badge of office but that high office without it is empty; that it is not the sole prerogative of any level; that it flourishes best on all levels if nurtured in a democratic environment.*



## Moral & Spiritual Education in the Schools: A Little Proof

In addition to the assertions that we do not teach enough American history and that we do not teach subjects, a third statement frequently made is that we give less attention than formerly to moral and spiritual values. Here, again, the charges are fallacious. They are particularly important to social-studies teachers because the subject matter and the activities of the social studies lend themselves most easily to the teaching of moral and spiritual values.

It is true that few public schools give sectarian religious instruction today. And it is also true that American schools were founded as sectarian schools. It is not true that sectarian and spiritual are synonymous, nor is secularism to be identified with atheism. It was the decision of the people, not of professional educators, that the American public school should be a secular, non-sectarian institution.

Basic to our democratic beliefs is the principle that sectarian religion shall not be taught under the compulsion of government. And, fortunately, modern public schools do not give instruction deprecating or supporting any particular religious sect. This is not to say that modern schools omit moral and spiritual instruction. Sectarian instruction is properly left to the home and the church. But there are other kinds of moral and spiritual instruction. One measure of moral and spiritual value in the schools is the extent to which the program of activities conforms to the way of life preached and exemplified by the great religious teachers.

When I visit elementary-school social-studies classes and see little children actively learning to cooperate, to share and to help each other through meaningful experiences, I am thrilled at heart. And when I contrast this situation with the tyranny and oppression of only a short time ago, I cannot but believe that there has been an improvement in instruction in moral and spiritual values.

There was a whipping post in the school yard

of colonial times where the playground equipment now stands. We now find an aquarium at the front of the elementary classroom where there was a bundle of rods in the nineteenth century. But the tyranny which had supplanted love at the old-time teacher's rostrum did not succeed in bringing about the way of life in school that Jesus taught and lived.

School committees commonly preferred men to women as teachers in the district school because women could not keep order. And for that matter, frequently the man could not keep order either. Many were the district schools which had a succession of school masters in the same year, as one after another fled or was locked out by the pupils.

Not long ago I was talking with a group of businessmen, and the subject got around to the schools. On the whole the atmosphere was friendly to the schools, and the group agreed that the schools had improved in many ways. Then one of the men said, "But there's one thing you can't deny, discipline has certainly gone to pot!"

I had the answer ready, but fortunately I did not have to give it. Another businessman said, "Why, George, you haven't thought that through. If the teachers you and I had when we were in school had had to maintain order by the methods the teachers use today, the schoolhouse walls would have fallen out. You know very well that when we behaved it was under the continued threat of physical violence. And even so, I could tell you some sorry stories about discipline. When I remember that the teachers of my children don't have a rod and never touch a child, I think discipline has improved a lot!"

It is evident to this writer that, while sectarian instruction has disappeared from most public schools, the moral and spiritual way of life in school has generally improved.—WILLIAM H. CARTWRIGHT in *Social Education*.

## Events & Opinion

Edited by THE STAFF

**TEXTBOOK CRITICS:** Since the Board of Regents of New York State appointed a special commission of the State Education Department to investigate textbooks against which any individual or group filed a documented complaint, the group never has had to meet, says Judith Crist in the *New York Herald Tribune*. The commission was appointed in February 1952. It has received a number of complaints against textbooks used in the public schools. But when the complainants were asked to cite chapter and verse of the basis of their objections, "somehow they were never heard from again."

**SEGREGATION PROBLEMS:** The Southern Educational Reporting Service has been established with the aid of a grant from the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education to provide public-school administrators and other community leaders with objective information on problems and developments that may arise in the wake of the recent Supreme Court decision against racial segregation in the public schools, states a news item in the *New York Times*.

The Service is headed by Virginius Dabney, editor of the *Richmond Times-Dispatch*. Headquarters is in Nashville, Tenn. The problem of adjusting to the Supreme Court's decision, Mr. Dabney said, will vary widely from one community to another, and must be met by each community in its own way. But school officials and other community leaders will be better equipped to handle their local situation wisely and effectively if they are kept informed of the experiences of "other communities similarly situated."

Under the Service's group of editors and educators, experienced Southern newspaper reporters will gather information on developments. Special factual studies will be made. Periodic summaries of this information will be available to school administrators and others from the Nashville headquarters.

**COMICS & COLLAPSE:** "Lewd and lawless" comic books threaten to spread "moral decay" among the nation's children, according to a statement by E. Lamar Buckner, national president of the Junior Chamber of Commerce quoted in a United Press dispatch. Mr. Buckner continued, "Throughout history, the fall of every great power—Persia, Greece, Rome, or France—has been preceded by a moral collapse from within. If we are to shield

ourselves from the same collapse, we must make sure the leaders of the future develop a high moral integrity."

**"PERILOUSLY LOW":** The American public-school system has permitted educational standards to become "perilously low," stated Richard B. Sewall, associate professor of English at Yale University on a Yale radio program, according to a news release from that University. These low standards, he said, are partially responsible for the increase in juvenile delinquency, for too many young Americans today are "uneducated in any kind of decent self-respect."

Dr. Sewall declared that public schools "dare not flunk anybody anymore—or a precious few. We have deprived our children not only of the freedom to do their best—since our system is run on the basis of average ability—but the freedom to fail, the kind of experience that may hurt, but may lead to a new self-knowledge, a new humility, that can be learned in no other way."

**CREATIVE WRITING CONTESTS:** For the *Atlantic Monthly Magazine's* annual nation-wide creative writing contests, the closing date for the college contests is March 18, 1955, and for the high-school and private-school contests, March 25, 1955, announces Edward Weeks, editor of the magazine. The cash awards are \$100 each to the college students and to the high-school or private-school students who write the best essay, best story, and best poem. And the University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa., will offer a 4-year tuition-free scholarship to the most promising writer, in the opinion of the University, who enters the high-school and private-school contests, whether or not he is a prize winner.

In addition to the cash and scholarship prizes, the *Atlantic* will award prize or place certificates to a large number of runners-up. A feature of these contests is that every comment and criticism of the readers and judges on the prize-winning, place-winning, and honorable-mention papers are forwarded to the instructors of the student writers.

**MEETINGS IN SCHOOLS:** Communities with right-wing tendencies, states a news item in the *New York Times*, often wonder whether they can bar groups with left-wing reputations from meeting in public-school buildings. The question will be

answered by the U. S. Supreme Court, in a test case that arose in Yonkers, N. Y.

The Yonkers Board of Education barred the Yonkers Committee for Peace from meeting in a school building there in 1953. The Committee appealed to the State Supreme Court and then to the Appellate Division. Both courts refused to reverse the school board ruling. The U. S. Supreme Court consented to hear an appeal on the case this fall.

The background of the case given in the *Times* item is that "The State Department of Education has told school boards that 'controversial' meetings should be barred, and therein lies the crux of the problem. The instruction has given school boards a basis on which to exclude virtually any organization, objectors argue."

**EXPERT TROUBLE:** Many children might be better off if their parents did not get so much expert advice on upbringing. That's what two child-care specialists indicated at the International Institute of Child Psychiatry in Toronto, reports Murray Illson in the *New York Times*.

Dr. Benjamin Spock, authority on pediatrics of the School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, stated that numerous programs in the field of parent education "have missed the target and some of them have, in a subtle way, done more harm than

good." He added that "one can only in a very limited degree teach parents, on an intellectual level, how to rear or how not to rear children."

Dr. Hilde Bruch, of the Department of Psychiatry and Pediatrics, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, declared that "the time has come to leave mother and child alone." She observed: "In the United States, where the teaching of child psychology is propagated most vigorously, there seems to be no decline in the incidence of mental disorders. On the contrary, emotional problems and juvenile delinquency are said to be on the increase, involving more and more children from middle-class homes."

**ENGLISH MEETING:** The 1954 convention of the National Council of Teachers of English will be held in Detroit, Mich., November 25-27. Headquarters: Hotel Statler. Invited: all teachers of English. Special feature: latest trends in student publications. Theme: "Language, Mistress of the Arts."

**MATH MEETINGS:** The 15th Christmas Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics will be held at the Chase Hotel, St. Louis, Mo., December 27-29, 1954. The 33rd Annual Meeting will be at the Statler Hotel, Boston, Mass., April 13-16, 1955.



## "Good Old Days": Rough-Hewn Schools with Rough-Hewn Curriculums

The abandoned cabin of a restless pioneer became the first American schoolhouse in the Illinois country. In Monroe County, in early 1789, John Seeley held classes in this building, which had "a floor of earth, round poles for seats, and logs a little flattened for desks." . . .

For the most part, the first schools were not housed in buildings intended for that purpose. An old smokehouse that had outlived its usefulness, a corn crib or a stable, or an abandoned house was better than nothing. The absence of a window would be something of a drawback, but the open door would do fairly well. . . .

During the last few years of the 18th century buildings for school purposes began to be built. Fathers and sons would assemble with their teams of oxen, cut trees from the public lands, and build a schoolhouse from these rough-trimmed and un-hewn logs. . . .

In some buildings, one whole log was left out to provide light, and in others there were spaces left for windows. Sometimes no opening was left, or it

was insufficient, and part of the roof was left movable so it could be raised on dark days. Oiled paper was placed over the openings to keep out the rain and wind, as there was very little glass.

A schoolhouse in Schuyler County in 1895 had leather flaps for shutters. It is noted as a great rarity that a schoolhouse in Edwards County had a real glass window as early as 1824. . . .

No record is available as to the materials of instruction in the schools prior to 1800 other than the New Testament, the beech rod, and the quill. After 1800, books used in the East were introduced. *Webster's Blue Back Speller* was the most popular of all school books.

Instruction, with the exception of spelling, was on the individual basis, with each pupil reciting aloud "up front." In some schools, all studying was aloud, which earned them the name of "loud schools." The "loud schools" were usually regarded as superior, and the louder the pupil, the better he was rated.—VERGIL M. RAGSDALE and FRANCINE RICHARD in *Illinois Education*.

# Book Reviews

ROBERT G. FISK and EARL R. GABLER, *Review Editors*

*Introduction to American Education*, by PAUL R. MORT and WILLIAM S. VINCENT. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1954. 435 pages, \$4.75.

The essential purpose of this book is to provide an overview of the field of education for young people of college age, some of whom may enter the profession of education. In the opinion of the reviewer the authors have achieved that purpose, but have also sketched an overview of educational philosophy, research, and practice needed by all intelligent adult citizens. They have written a book which should be highly recommended to the many parents, board members, and laymen who are now taking a more active share in assessing the educational program of their schools.

The book is divided into three sections—The Educational Setting, The Educational Enterprise, and the Science and Method of Education. The first section portrays the power and importance of education in our society, and delineates the historical and philosophical development of goals and methods. As the authors develop the relationship of education to national competency in scientific research, to productivity on the farm, and to our standard of living, the reader can hardly fail to be impressed by the significance of education in our world today. Another job that has been done interestingly in this first section is the job of tracing today's educational ideas in the theories of past centuries.

Although the readers of this book have all been to school, the changes that have occurred require that adults study their school carefully. The second section provides a basis for understanding these changes and also for judging the quality of a school. For the student who is still in the process of selecting a career, this section contains a much-needed appraisal of the vocational opportunities in education. Although financial advantages and promo-

tional opportunities are described, one might like to see more emphasis on the personal satisfaction which comes from a career of service in education.

The final chapter of this book provides a review of educational research and how it has affected the curriculum and methods of the modern school. The authors have selected from a vast amount of research the major studies influencing education, and have described these studies clearly and concisely.

The excellent references at the end of each chapter will be useful to the reader who needs a more extensive development of the philosophy, research, and practices in education. The completeness and readability of this book suggests that here is a reference useful not only to students and laymen, but valuable also to the teachers and administrators of our schools.

ERNEST F. WEINRICH  
Ass't Supt. of Schools  
Schenectady, N. Y.

*The People Govern*, by LAURENCE G. PAQUIN and MARIAN D. IRISH. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1954. 598 pages, \$4.

To maintain the objectivity of the microscope without destroying the observer's sensitivity to the movements of life on the slides has always been a desirable goal in the field of the social sciences. *The People Govern*, a political science text "designed to provide young Americans with a Primer of Democracy," achieves this ambitious combination of values with a facility and effectiveness that should make it an extremely popular book for students at the secondary-school level and higher.

The text is organized around eleven fundamental principles of American government, including discussions of the concepts of democracy, the structure and functions of national, state, and local governments, the economy of the nation, and American foreign policies. Chapters describing the attitudes of citizens at the polls, the national civil service, the organization of Congress, and the relationships of states are extremely well done and prove once again that smooth writing and solid scholarship make excellent bookmates. The authors might have increased the effectiveness of Unit IX by additional clarification of the meaning of socialism, as distinct from communism, but in general the subject matter is splendidly handled. An annotated bibliography and a list of suggestions for class ac-

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tivities at the end of each chapter are carefully prepared and quite useful.

Most commendable of all, however, is the reaffirmation of Laurence Paquin and Marian Irish that our government is only as strong or as weak as the will of its citizens and that "the strength of democratic government lies in active, intelligent participation by all the people."

DANIEL ROSELLE, Assoc. Prof. of History  
State University of New York  
Teachers College,  
Fredonia, N.Y.

*Commodore John Paul Jones, U. S. Navy*  
(A biography), by CAPT. DONALD JOHN  
MUNRO, R.N. New York: The William-  
Frederick Press, 1954. 108 pages, \$3.

This biography written by Captain Donald John Munro, a professional naval officer of the Royal Navy, is proof of the truth of the prophetic words of John Paul Jones, "The English nation may hate me but I will force them to esteem me too."

Captain Munro of the Royal Navy, against which Commodore Jones fought with such ardent valor two centuries ago, is a competent and capable critic who writes with sympathetic understanding and without prejudice.

The book is an authenticated story of a dynamic leader whose brief life was full of adventure, naval engagements, brilliant social contacts, glamor, and excitement on both sides of the Atlantic.

The story gives a wealth of detail and is delightfully written, in simple, moving style and clear-cut language. It should have a broad appeal. To Navy men it gives the contrast between the past and present naval organization; to high-school boys it is a thrilling sea story; to students of history it gives a new appreciation of the great American naval hero—John Paul Jones.

ADONA R. SICK, Lib'n  
Union-Endicott High School  
Endicott, N. Y.

*Toward Better Newspaper Reading*, by H.  
CARL SAILER. Published and distributed  
by the *Newark News*, Newark, N.J., 1954,  
12 pages. Free.

A brief brochure written for high-school teachers who are concerned with helping students to acquire skills in critical reading of newspapers.

The brochure is divided into five parts: (1) why, (2) what, and (3) how of newspaper reading, plus (4) a section on suggested student activities, and (5) a selected bibliography. The fact that it has been

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ROBERT G. FISK

*Guidance Services*, by J. ANTHONY HUMPHREYS and ARTHUR E. TRAXLER. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1954. 438 pages, \$4.75.

"What is a good introductory book on guidance?" is a question often asked this reviewer by teachers. This new introductory text on guidance services by Humphreys and Traxler is a book that clearly presents the guidance part of the process of formal education, particularly guidance at the secondary-school level. Here is a book that is ideal for the introductory course in guidance.

The authors have divided their presentation into five main sections: Part I, "Understandings Basic to Guidance Work"; Part II, "Guidance Tools and Techniques"; Part III, "Solving Students' Major Problems"; Part IV, "Administration of the Guidance Program"; and Part V, "The Future of Guidance Services."

It is interesting to note that the authors state that guidance services are subsumed under the more

encompassing field: Pupil Personnel Work. The introductory chapters on the guidance point of view, sociological bases for guidance, psychological bases of guidance, and guidance principles and aims set the stage for the remainder of the book, with emphasis on the fact that "according to the guidance point of view just expressed, the school helps to bring to bear on the individual those influences that stimulate and assist him, primarily by his own efforts, to develop to the maximum degree consistent with his capacities." (p. 7) For just a moment in the introductory chapters the reader is given a terse but to the point description of the place of guidance services in the elementary school: "In the elementary school, the classroom teacher is actually both teacher and counselor."

At the conclusion of Part I, Chapter 5 outlines the history of guidance services. Just why this abrupt change in thinking has to be placed in the text is not clear. Although the historical material is interesting, it seems to be something that had to go in some place and this was a good spot.

Two excellent chapters, Chap. 8, "Group Techniques in the Guidance Program," and Chap. 9, "Research and Evaluation in Guidance Services," together with chapters on records, interviewing, and follow-up constitute the body of Part II of the book. Excellent suggestions are given on the "why, what,

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ELEANOR M. PETERSON

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A Publication of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation

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where, and who" of group techniques. This chapter is especially helpful to the classroom teacher-counselor because "group guidance can play a significant role in the total guidance program of a school or college. This type of guidance is being employed increasingly by educational institutions; many of these institutions have reported favorable results." (p. 205).

Chap. 10, with sixteen pages on research and evaluation, is significant because as the authors state, "In a field as varied and complex as guidance it is to be expected that many aspects of guidance services have not as yet been adequately studied and advanced," (p. 224) and "In practically every aspect of guidance services research is needed," (p. 228). This chapter should prove a stimulus to the guidance worker to engage in relevant research.

The material presented in the chapters on solving students' educational and vocational choices, job placement, and personal problems is brief but should give the teacher-counselor the initial impetus in assisting the student to solve his problem. The suggested readings and listed source materials are excellent.

More important in an introductory course than the chapter on organization of guidance services is Chap. 16 on "Staffing the Guidance Services." Here is an outline of the guidance roles played by the

classroom teacher and the specialists. This chapter should assist in pinpointing duties and help the classroom teacher realize what is expected of him in his role as guidance worker.

Not unexpectedly, but nevertheless with convincing emphasis, the content of Part V emphasizes future trends in guidance work. Topics which were omitted but deserve major consideration in an introductory guidance text are "Working with Parents" and "Using Community Resources for Guidance."

This is one of the best introductory texts on guidance services yet published. It should clarify the nature of guidance services in the present-day educational program and be of help to the teacher, counselor, and school administrator interested in the total development of high-school boys and girls.

HERMAN J. PETERS  
Assoc. Prof. of Educ.  
Ohio State University

*Mathematics for the Secondary School (Its Content, and Methods of Teaching and Learning)*, by WILLIAM DAVID REEVE.  
New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1954.  
547 pages, \$5.95.

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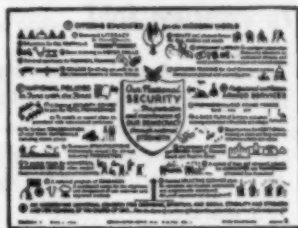
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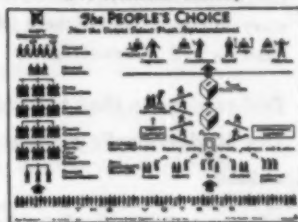
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Varied and thought-provoking questions and topics for discussion at the end of each chapter serve to clarify and extend the subject, both for those who use the book as a text and those who study it for personal, in-service enrichment. The chapter on planning and teaching a lesson in mathematics and those on teaching geometry in junior high school, algebra, indirect measurement, and demonstrative geometry give many day-to-day suggestions for teachers.

On the whole, it is a book which every mathematics teacher could profit by studying and keeping at hand for constant reference. Without doubt the mathematics program in any school would gain stronger support from administrators who had read and put into practice many of the good suggestions of this down-to-earth treatment of a subject which should always keep its feet on the ground, even though for those few who can enjoy the subject for itself alone, it may have its head in the clouds.

SISTER MARY FIDES GOUGH, O.P.

Spalding Academy

Spalding, Nebr.

*Freedom Train* (The Story of Harriet Tubman), by DOROTHY STERLING. New York, Garden City: Doubleday & Co., 1954. 191 pages, \$2.50.

*Hoosier Heritage*, by ELIZABETH HAMILTON FRIERMOOD. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1954. 221 pages, \$2.75.

These two books portray in vivid fashion for high-school people equally important stages in the story of America.

*Freedom Train*, which tells the story of Harriet

(Continued on page 126)

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*Foreword by Robert J. Havighurst, Professor of Education, University of Chicago*

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# The October Clearing House Is Here

*The following excerpts are clues to good professional reading in THE CLEARING HOUSE for October.*

Television is expanding from entertainment into instruction, and from the home into the school. Teachers and administrators are recognizing its worth. The problem of its proper utilization is being solved.—*Donald G. Tarbet*, p. 71.

It is amazing to note that teachers, in spite of the work that has been done in the past 150 years by linguistic scientists, still think that every word has a correct meaning, and that dictionaries and grammars are the supreme authority in matters of meaning and usage.—*Lynwood Carranco*, p. 72.

What's good in a good school? Answers to this question were sought by the Division of Research in the process of preparing a design for early secondary-education programs in New York State. . . . Principals and teachers were requested to make an examination of their programs—not in terms of what needed to be done but in terms of what they were doing well.—*Leo D. Doherty*, p. 77.

The following plans have made the opening day (and later ones) less of a nightmare for [new] junior-high children. Their smoother start establishes earlier behavior patterns that may persist even to the end of high school.—*Edwin A. Juckett*, p. 81.

So they do not want to read! So—leave them alone on that point for awhile and, instead, fill up some of the holes in their other language-art skills. Improve skills which can be tied into what they

do feel they are going to need to know eventually, if not now. Our personal experience has been that, as we did this, pupils' tension about anything that was "reading" disappeared.—*Mary Burton Mohler*, p. 85.

. . . much appears to be beyond the influence of the counselor. In some families, because of economic factors or traditions, there seem to be little stimulation, motivation, or encouragement of the children to further their education. This problem can only be attacked through an active campaign to educate the parents to the value of education.—*Joe M. Young*, p. 92.

A burnt child hates the fire, and I was a burnt child with respect to novels. The story of how one man became conditioned against that form of literature, and later reconditioned, may have value to students of education at the secondary level.—*J. R. Shannon*, p. 96.

Coins of the United States serve not only as a medium of exchange, but also as an expression of the ideals and aspirations of a people. They contain a symbolism which should be understood and prized by every American citizen.—*Frank Meyer*, p. 100.

If all the stories are true about the terrible conditions in some public and private institutions for mentally retarded children in other states, Arizona should be doubly proud of its Children's Colony.—*Willard Abraham*, p. 105.

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(Continued from page 122)

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Although historical background is not so evident in *Hoosier Heritage*, it is nonetheless the basis for Elizabeth Friermood's entertaining novel. In it Julia Edwards heads west from Indiana by wagon trail, but stops in the Ozarks, where she starts a school for mountain children. The same courage and tenacity of purpose that helped Harriet Tubman fulfill her dreams of freedom for the Negro help young Julia to withstand the rigors of pioneer life, and to bring a different kind of freedom to the members of her family and to the mountain children.

OLGA ACHTENHAGEN  
Plainfield High School  
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## Books Received

*American Education*—an Introduction, by EMMA REINHARDT (a first course in education for students who will be teachers). New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954. 506 pages, \$4.

*The Devil's Tail* (Adventures of a Printer's Apprentice in Colonial Virginia), by EDITH THACHER HURD. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1954. 216 pages, \$2.75.

*Educational Psychology*, by LEE J. CRONBACH. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1954. 628 pages, \$5.50.

*I Find My Vocation* (4th Ed.), by HARRY DEXTER KITSON. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1954. 282 pages, \$2.80.

*School Health Education* (rev. ed.)—A Textbook for Teachers, Nurses, and Other Professional Personnel, by DELBERT OBERTEUFFER. New York: Harper and Bros., 1954. 454 pages, \$4.50.

*Student Teaching in the Secondary School*, by WILLIAM T. GRUHN. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1954. 306 pages, \$4.25.

*Young Infield Rookie*, by CHARLES COOMBS. New York: Lantern Press, 1954. 188 pages, \$2.50.

## ➤ Audio-Visual News ➤

**FILMSTRIP PHILATELY:** "Adventures in Stamps," filmstrip series with records, color, 60 to 100 frames, rental, issued by Audio-Master Corp., 17 E. 45th St., New York, N.Y. This filmstrip series has a number of unusual features: it presents various historical and industrial topics by using postage stamps entirely as the illustrative material of the panels; each strip is accompanied by a record of commentary and a script; and because of the extensive use of U. S. postage stamps in the strips, Audio-Master states, a Government ruling requires that the series be offered on a rental basis only, and cannot be sold.

The first 4 titles in the series are: *The Story of the Panama Canal*, *Discovery and Exploration of the North Pole*, *Radio Philatelia*, and *History of Aviation*. The first title, typical of the series, traces the history and development of Panama and the Canal Zone from the year 1501, when Balboa landed, through the building and completion of the Panama Canal. Covering this span of 4 centuries, postage stamps provide the pictorial presentation of the exploration of Panama, its independence from Spain, membership in the Colombian Union, the unsuccessful French effort to build the canal, the fight in Congress for a Nicaraguan canal, the final

choice of the Canal Zone, and the incredible engineering energies that created the Panama Canal.

The series is written and produced by Herbert Rosen, noted writer, columnist, and lecturer on philately. The series is offered on an annual rental basis, for either one or two titles a month. (Elem., Jr.H., HS, Adult)

**POLITICS:** *American Parties and Politics*, filmstrip, B&W, 60 frames, \$2.50, issued by Office of

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SCIENCE: "Wonderworld of Science" filmstrip series, 12 pairs or 24 strips, about 60 frames per pair, full color, \$4 per strip, \$7 per pair, or in 2 sets of 12 strips with teacher's guide, \$36 per set. Issued by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York 17, N.Y. These 2 sets of filmstrips were prepared for use with Scribner's "Wonderworld of Science" Books 7 and 8, but are arranged for effective use with other science textbooks on the same level.

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The titles of the pairs of strips are as follows: First set: *An Invisible Ocean* (air), *Good Water to Drink*, *Food in the Body*, *The Sun and the Earth*, *Changing Weather and Cooperation Among Plants and Animals*; second set: *Our Neighbors in Space*, *The Changing Face of the Earth*, *How New Plants Are Produced*, *Moving Things From Place to Place* (transportation), *Speaking and Hearing* (sound), and *Atomic Energy for Better Health*. (Upper Elem. and Jr.H)

THE ISLANDS: "Hawaii, U.S.A." series of 6 filmstrips, full color, 40 frames each, set \$30, \$6 each, distributed by Filmstrip House, 15 W. 46th St., New York 36. This series presents the little-known history of the islands which may soon become our 49th state—from the time of Hawaii's earliest settlement by Polynesians from Tahiti to its present-day multi-racial economy. Prepared by the Hawaiian lecturer, Kani Evans, the series is "endorsed by the Governor of Hawaii and civic organizations of the Islands."

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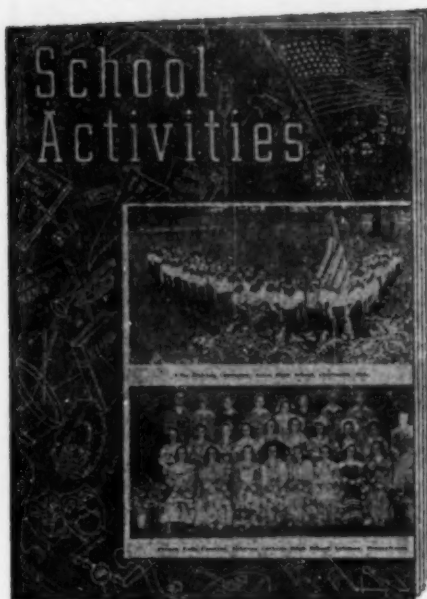
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